

BRITISH SERVICES EDUCATION

BY

MAJOR-GENERAL C. LLOYD

C.B., C.B.E., T.D.

Director of Army Education, 1945-9

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FOREWORD

I AM VERY CONSCIOUS that this booklet does far less than justice to a subject of great importance at the present time. My only justification for undertaking the task of writing it at the request of the British Council is that for five years I devoted myself to the cause of education in the Army. I am deeply indebted to my colleague Directors of Education of the Admiralty and Air Ministry, Captain W. A. Bishop and Air Commodore A. H. Robson respectively, for assistance readily, as always, given, and to Captain W. J. Baxter and Group Captain I. B. Hart for Chapters Three and Five. The responsibility, however, for statements made is entirely mine and I can only hope that those sufficiently interested to read it will obtain some of the pleasure it gave me to write it. In addition to my own deficiencies as a writer the severe limitations of space have compelled me to omit much of interest and to deal with many important aspects of the work in a cursory manner.

My very grateful thanks are due to Majors E. Hampson, H. R. Wright and T. G. Exon for correcting the proofs.

CYRIL LLOYD

CHAPTER 1

EARLY DAYS

EDUCATION in the British Armed Forces is of respectable antiquity in the history of their professional development. For nearly two hundred years the Royal Navy and the Army have had schoolmasters to provide fundamental education as a foundation to more specialised military studies. In the Royal Air Force, the youngest of the Services, education has played an important role from the beginning.

In the Navy it was early the custom for a captain to include in the ship's company a number of young men destined to be naval officers, and these would receive instruction in subjects essential for efficiency on the quarter-deck. By the end of the seventeenth century the naval schoolmaster was directed to employ his time on board in instructing young officers in writing, arithmetic and navigation, and in teaching the rudiments to the other youths of the ship.

It is not surprising to find that the Army's interest in education was first concerned with that of the soldiers' children, for it was to them that the regiment would look for recruits to its ranks. In 1767 the Queen's Royal Regiment, if not exceptional, was at least outstanding in its concern for its children. A standing order of the Regiment contained these words :

“A serjeant or corporal whose sobriety, honesty and good conduct can be depended upon, and that is capable of teaching writing, reading and arithmetic, is to be employed in the capacity of schoolmaster, where soldiers' children are to be carefully instructed.”

Nor was the private soldier forgotten. The Napoleonic campaigns had meant rapid promotion for many of them and with it increased responsibility. Conditions had made it necessary for non-commissioned officers to undertake many of the administrative duties which normally devolved on the officers. In 1811 the Commander-in-Chief gave official support to a

system, already operating in some regiments, with which the name of Sir John Moore, particularly, has been linked. The Commander-in-Chief recommended that all commanding officers should establish schools for soldiers' children and for any of the men who wished to attend. A serjeant-schoolmaster was attached to each regiment. Instruction was based on the principles of the Reverend Andrew Bell, a former army chaplain who was later appointed educational adviser to the Commander-in-Chief.

Between 1743 and 1908 the Army founded three boarding schools for the sons of soldiers, the Duke of York's Royal Military School, the Queen Victoria School and the Royal Hibernian Military School. Of these the two former still exist. The Royal Military Academy and the Royal Military College were also established during the same period, and we thus have clear evidence of the increasing interest of the military authorities in education during these early years.

The Royal Navy provided for the education of ordinary ratings in 1837 by appointing the first seamen's schoolmasters. These were additional to, and distinct from, those who instructed the young officers. The seaman was taught reading, writing and arithmetic as well as elementary navigation to such a standard as to fit him for promotion to a higher rating.

As was to be expected, education in the Navy and Army received official support in the first instance because of its intimate connection with service efficiency. The same principle operated with regard to civil education. Although Lord Brougham's interest in the education of the masses was dictated by philanthropic motives, as was that of Kay-Shuttleworth and Robert Owen in the first half of the nineteenth century, others supported his ideas for more utilitarian reasons. The very senior officer who described a proposed regimental library as "an unnecessary and objectionable institution," and the commander who was convinced that literacy and bad behaviour went hand in hand, had their counterparts in Parliament when elementary education was being discussed in 1833. The idealist is rarely of the age in which he lives and there are few who possess both the ideals and the means of ensuring their acceptance. The Services have been fortunate in many of their

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appointments, but rarely more so than when the Reverend R. C. Gleig became Inspector-General of Army Schools in 1844. Gleig was a product of Oxford and before taking Holy Orders had served as an infantry subaltern. His varied accomplishments and social connections were instrumental in gaining him the support of Sidney Herbert, the Secretary at War.

Until the appointment of Gleig army schoolmasters had been regimental soldiers, but in 1846 Herbert agreed to the formation of the Corps of Army Schoolmasters. The newly formed corps found in the Inspector-General an ardent champion and one who, by his own enthusiasm, infected its members with that vitality which made them such a force in the old Regular Army. Six years previously the schoolmistresses of the Army had also been granted official status.

Colonel I. H. Lefroy, who succeeded Gleig in 1857, was a man of similar calibre but different accomplishments. He was an administrator of a high order and as the founder of the Royal Artillery Institution was already well known to the Army. Lefroy expanded his department and ensured the efficient inspection of army schools by appointing regimental officers and some of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools to the military inspectorate. He fought continuously for an improved status for the army schoolmaster and succeeded to a limited extent.

Although the appointment of Inspector-General was abolished in 1860, we remember these men as two of the doughtiest fighters for education in the Army.

The year 1860 also marks the inauguration of the system of certificates for educational proficiency in the Army. At first these were issued on a regimental basis and were not supported by everyone, but in 1871 the certificates were made an integral part of the educational system. The Fourth Class Certificate was abolished in 1887.

The first world war brought a great development of adult education in the Services. At a very early date attempts were made to meet the educational opportunities and responsibilities created by the mobilisation of the nation's youth. These efforts—with which the names of Lord Kitchener and Sir Robert Blair must be associated—failed in themselves because of the

vastness of the problem and the preoccupation of the authorities with the absolutely essential business of fighting the war. But it was a noble failure, and at home led to considerable work with young recruits which by 1917 achieved the dignity of an organised scheme. It is interesting to note that the War Office not only encouraged this work but allowed it to develop on its own lines, so that in some areas there was a bias towards the vocational and technical and in others towards education of a general character.

Both at home and in France educational work was begun by the military authorities for the benefit, and in many cases at the request, of the men. These beginnings, independent of one another, were motivated by ideas from the common experience of close relationship with men on whom the war was beginning to press with serious monotony. Into this work the Young Men's Christian Association entered with enthusiasm, and at first education took the form of lectures to the troops delivered under the auspices either of the training branches or of the Association. The isolated lecture became increasingly popular and gradually developed into longer courses of more serious educational value. In contrast to the use of propaganda in the educational system of the German army, which was directed to the forming of a desired (and usually erroneous) opinion, propaganda in the British Services was rigidly barred and the lecturers devoted themselves exclusively to work of a truly educational character with a complete absence of bias in presentation. The same differences between the British and the German methods were observed in the recent war.

By 1918, with the personal support of the Commander-in-Chief, Lord Haig, a definite scheme of education had been drawn up with the twofold object of (a) giving the men a wider view of their duties as citizens of the British Empire, and (b) of helping them in their work after the war. This was done at a time when the great German onslaught was imminent. Education thus initiated during a period of crisis struck its roots deep in the Army, the parallel developments in France and the United Kingdom were brought together, and the whole scheme was co-ordinated by a Central Committee at the War Office. At this stage Lord Gorell, who had been intimately associated

with the work from the beginning, was sent to the War Office and from then on was the focal point of the whole scheme. His devoted work, with the support of Lord Milner and General Lynden-Bell, led to the vast expansion of education during the demobilisation period.

There is here no space in which to describe with justice the vast ramifications of the work during this period. It must suffice to quote the words of Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, then President of the Board of Education : "I do not think there has ever been in the whole history of education of this world an educational experiment conducted on so large a scale."

The work was irregular in incidence and effect, as it was bound to be, but directly or indirectly the movement influenced in one way or another many hundreds of thousands of citizen soldiers ; it played a considerable part in the resettlement in civil life of the youth of the Empire, and it has left its mark permanently upon military thought.

Lord Gorell was implementing his scheme at a time when the Fisher Act of 1918 was beginning to establish a comprehensive system for the children of the country. Between 1919 and 1920, with the support of many senior officers who were quick to appreciate the value of the experiment, the decisive influence of Gorell led to the formulation of an educational policy for the peace-time Regular Army. At this time the Army's system of examinations was completely reorganised ; in 1920 was formed the Army Educational Corps, which from then on became the main instrument of the Army's education.

In 1919 the following significant paragraph, which is as true to-day as it was then, appeared in a War Office policy letter and indicates the spirit of the approach to the problem :

" Commanding officers must realise that the recruit who is entrusted to them at the age of 17 or 18, has in the course of his service with the colours to be made not only an efficient soldier, but also an educated man, a good citizen, and competent workman. Education must no longer be a side-show and vocational training the hobby of a few commanding officers. It must in future be as integral and as permanent a part of the scheme of military work as physical training or musketry."

This passage could equally well have formed part of a memorandum issued by the Admiralty or the Air Ministry at the time. The latter indeed expressed as a main purpose of the Air Force Scheme that of providing "education in a wider sense tending to raise the level of general intelligence and to develop those qualities of mind and character which go to form an efficient disciplined force under modern conditions" (King's Regulations and Air Council Instructions). That their education schemes should differ in detail was a consequence of recruiting and training differences in the three Services. The general attitude behind them was, however, the same. It was believed that education contributed to the efficiency of the man as a sailor, soldier or airman, and it was hoped that the period spent in the Services would not be without benefit to the man himself. Indeed, a survey of the years 1920-1939 will give clear indications of the increasing concern which the Service Ministries showed in the education of the serving man and in the resettlement of those who had completed their term of engagement. In all Services, for instance, promotion to certain ranks depended on the attainment of an established educational standard. The Army pioneered in vocational training and started Army Vocational Training Centres early in the 1920's at Chiseldon, Catterick, Hounslow and Aldershot. Staffed by the Army Educational Corps, these centres were highly successful, and were handed over to the Ministry of Labour at a later date. In some cases it was neither the incentive of promotion nor the preparation for civilian employment which stimulated the interest of the sailor, soldier or airman. There were many who, through the medium of the ship's or unit library, found a worthwhile interest in the study of literature, art or science. Dramatic societies and music circles, if not widespread, were by no means unknown in the Services between the wars. The padre, regimental officer and educational staff all co-operated to provide the serviceman with the facilities and amenities available to the normal civilian; and the corporate life of ship or unit was in itself a valuable training-ground for citizenship.

The educational services of the Navy, Army and Air Force were reorganised after the first world war; the differences which were then present still persist, and it will be convenient

to consider them briefly at this point. Originally the Navy possessed two grades—the Naval Instructor whose task was primarily the professional education of the officers, and the Schoolmaster who was responsible for the instruction of the ratings. These two categories are now merged as Instructor Officers in the same branch under the Director of the Education Department. The original education staff of the Royal Air Force were civilians of graduate status employed by the Air Ministry. On the outbreak of the war in 1939 the members were granted emergency commissions in the Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve, and shortly after the cessation of hostilities they were formed into the Education Branch of the Royal Air Force with full officer status.

In all three Services education officers are concerned with both general and technical education, but in very different degrees. In the Royal Navy and Royal Air Force the technical work predominates ; the reverse is the case in the Army. The reasons for this will be examined in subsequent chapters, but generally speaking they are the higher educational standard of the entrants to the Royal Navy and Royal Air Force consequent upon the greater complexity of their machines of war. Only in the Army are non-commissioned officers employed on educational duties as a permanent part of the education service, although in the other two Services ratings and airmen have been seconded to this work from time to time to a limited extent.

The qualifications demanded of both the permanent and the short service officers in all three Services are similar—a degree, or recognition by the Ministry of Education as a qualified teacher. The Army, however, recruits instructors of non-commissioned rank as members of the Royal Army Educational Corps, and most of the teaching is undertaken by these serjeants and warrant officers.

In each of the three Services a Director is responsible, under the appropriate member of the Board of Admiralty, the Army Council and the Air Council respectively, for directing and co-ordinating the various aspects of educational work. The Directorates operate very similarly in the manner of, and according to the characteristics of, their respective Departments

of State, and there are arrangements for inter-Service discussions, which will be considered later.

In 1939 the imminence of war led to the formation of the Militia on the basis of universal national service. Detailed plans were made for the individual education of the militiaman, but before they could be brought into operation war broke out. Much ground had, however, been prepared for the educational developments of 1940.

The beginning of the war caused some curtailment of education throughout the Services. The amount of general instruction in H.M. ships was inevitably somewhat reduced, but the educational provision in shore establishments was only slightly modified. Compulsory general education for men in the Army virtually ceased in 1939, although evacuation to the country caused little serious decline in the standards maintained in the military schools for boys. In the Royal Air Force, the General Education Scheme was suspended.

With the exception of the Instructor Branch of the Royal Navy, which is an integral part of the fighting organisation of the Fleet, personnel of the educational services were diverted to one form or another of operational duty. Some remained in these appointments throughout the war, but the renewal of educational activity on a general scale in the autumn of 1940 brought most of them back to their proper work.

The educational experience of the first world war, and the intense interest of the nation in the general welfare of its armed forces, expressed themselves in many ways through devoted organisations and individuals both inside and outside the Services. This activity, in connection with which it is perhaps not invidious to mention the Young Men's Christian Association, Sir Walter Moberly and Dr. Basil Yeaxlee, led to the formation on January 6th, 1940, of the Central Advisory Council for Education in His Majesty's Forces, which is considered a little later in this chapter. This body was representative of almost every organisation in the country engaged in adult education, and it placed practically their entire resources at the disposal of the Services from then on. It is outside the scope of this work to go into the detail of the outstanding services of this body and its constituent organisations and

individuals. It must suffice to say that, in the opinion of the writer, this movement, as it may be called, was one of the most significant brought about by the war ; it had a far-reaching effect on hundreds of thousands of men and women who were otherwise lost to education.

In March 1940 the War Office set up the Haining Committee with terms of reference : " to investigate and report to the Secretary of State on the Educational, Welfare and Recreational needs of the Army and to make any necessary recommendations."

Sir Robert Haining as General Officer Commanding, Western Command, had shown himself deeply interested in the education of his troops. The report was presented to the Army Council on May 7th, 1940, three days before the launching of the German offensive. It recommended that the demand for education should be a matter of natural growth and that any scheme should be on a voluntary basis. The demands were to be met from the Army itself, the resources of the Central Advisory Council, technical schools, local education authorities and correspondence courses. It also recommended the appointment of a Director of Army Education " with wide sympathies and considerable experience of educational administration."

The evacuation from France created a unique situation for the Army. The Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force continued to be fully engaged in their respective operational roles but the Army had to re-form completely and initially without equipment. To some extent the problems of the Army had their counterpart in the other two Services and were dealt with, as will be seen, in a similar manner. In so far as they concern education, the first of these problems was the urgent necessity of maintaining morale. This was never low, but there was the danger that without active operations it might decline. Questions of low morale never arise in a British army which is engaged in active operations. The instinct of self-preservation no less than the incentive of ultimate victory is a sufficient spur to purposeful activity, but an army on the defensive and conscious of deficiencies in equipment, unavoidable though they might be, can be the breeding-ground of rumour and fertile soil for enemy propaganda. The second problem was the

necessity of acquainting everyone of the cause for which they were fighting and the progress of the war on all fronts with its civilian or non-military background. The third was the discovery that the average man-at-arms had a surprisingly inadequate knowledge of his own country's culture and way of life, both of which were at stake in the conflict.

To meet this situation the instruments were ready to hand, although they were brought into use spontaneously rather than by deliberate planning. The resources of the Central Advisory Council and the report of the Haining Committee were available to suggest measures which would foster morale. There is little doubt that the question of morale was uppermost in the minds of those who adopted and decided to implement the recommendations of the Committee. The idea of an evacuation and a beleaguered Britain can scarcely have influenced the conclusions offered by Haining, but it is safe to say that the report assumed a greatly enhanced significance once the issue of the Battle of France was decided.

The influence and work of the Central Advisory Council grew during the summer and autumn of 1940. Regional Committees, based on the extra-mural organisation of the universities and university colleges, and under the general control of the Central Advisory Council, supplied panels of civilian lecturers. It is this side of the Council's work which is best known to the general public, but in order to appreciate to the full the aid and advice which it gave to the Forces, it is necessary to consider briefly the relationship between civilian adult education and Services education prior to and during the early months of the second world war.

Lord Gorell had made great use of civilian educational resources during 1918 through the agency of the Y.M.C.A. Universities Committee, but between the wars the Services tended to be self-sufficient, and the civilians' share in their educational schemes was meagre. The Royal Navy and the R.A.F., it is true, did not rely entirely on Service personnel for staffing their schools and colleges, and personnel of the R.A.F. Educational Service were of civilian status ; but these staffs were specifically engaged by the Admiralty and Air Ministry and cannot be considered as examples of civilian assistance.

The rebirth of close liaison between the Services and the adult education organisations occurred in 1939 on the passing of the Military Service Bill. As in 1918 the Y.M.C.A. was closely associated with its early growth, but the Workers' Educational Association was also an active partner and before the end of 1939 it was possible to convene a conference representative of the Ministry of Education, the Universities and the main bodies providing adult education. It was on this occasion that the plans for the Central Advisory Council were made. One of the Council's first tasks was to obtain from the Service Departments a clear-cut policy on the provision and scope of adult education in the war-time Forces. Representations made to the Army had resulted in the appointment of the Haining Committee, and it seems reasonable to suggest that the Council acted in many ways as a clearing-house for the various proposals emanating from the Admiralty and Air Ministry.

During the summer and early autumn of 1940, invasion by the Germans seemed imminent and both military and civilian resources were mobilised to meet the threat. The approach of winter, however, provided an opportunity for stock-taking and thought, although it was generally realised that the spring of 1941 would see the intensification of the enemy's efforts to subdue this country. The Royal Navy did not at once enlarge the scope of its education scheme, because the immediate survival of this country depended for a considerable time largely on its efforts. The Royal Air Force, although fully extended, did find time to develop again, to a modest degree, its General Education Scheme, while the Army completed its plan for the full implementation of the Haining proposals, issuing in September 1940 a pamphlet "Education in the War-time Army."

The year 1941 saw a great extension of the education scheme in the Army and to a smaller degree in the other two Services. The isolated lecture was preferred to the systematic course, and although this preference gave rise to some misgivings on the part of the Regional Committees which had been set up by the Central Advisory Council, it was realised that conditions in the Forces made it difficult to arrange lengthy series of lectures by outside speakers. Easier to organise were voluntary classes, for

which the instructors were found from within individual units. Handicrafts, music, languages and the commercial subjects were popular. It was in 1941 that a measure of education was made compulsory in young soldiers' battalions.

The second of the problems mentioned earlier, the requirement to inform and awaken the nation in uniform as to the full implication of the war, was solved in a manner which has left an indelible mark on educational technique.

Current affairs talks had been a feature of service life even before the formation of the Army Bureau of Current Affairs in the summer of 1941 and they were directed to the causes, background and progress of the war. The pressure for them came spontaneously both from the field and from the higher command and in the summer of 1941 the Army Council took the decision to form the Army Bureau of Current Affairs in order to develop this form of activity. Mr. W. E. Williams was appointed as Director ; stimulated by his genius in the presentation of current affairs, discussion groups became common in the Army, and eventually in all the Services, including the Dominion and United States Forces.

The actual work with the troops could not be undertaken by experts ; they were not available in sufficient number, and in fact it was not desirable to use them. The discussion group has a unifying influence ; the use of the regimental officer as the leader of discussion resulted not only in the dissemination of essential facts about the war but also in the welding together of officers and men. As a basis for discussion the Bureau issued two publications, "Current Affairs" and "War," in alternate weeks. The weekly period of discussion was compulsory, and it was the duty of the Army Educational Corps to foster and encourage this work of the regimental officer.

It is not an easy task to assess the amount and value of educational activity in the Services during 1940, 1941 and 1942. The Royal Navy and Royal Air Force continued to provide education fundamental to their technical subjects for their technical personnel and air-crews, but it is doubtful if the educational schemes for the normal rating and airman were as extensive in scope as the provision made by the Army for the broader education of the rank and file. This was, perhaps, an

inevitable consequence of the different roles which the three Services had to play. It would be wrong, however, to assume that the Army during these years was a hive of educational activity. The war on land in the Middle and Far East was causing a heavy drain on our manpower at home, training was becoming more intensive, and the use to which each hour was put was subject to a very close scrutiny. It is certain that some Commanding Officers were sceptical of the value to be derived from education, while others, if not openly antagonistic, were loth to spare much time and energy to matters which seemed to have little bearing on the immediate conduct of the war. Many commanders, however, particularly those of the pre-war regular army, by their enthusiasm and personal interest, proved that the education scheme was justified, and the War Office in September 1942 announced the first of the winter schemes in a War Office letter addressed to all Commands at Home. This scheme was notable because it marked the acceptance by the War Office of the principle of education during working hours in time of war. It also indicated quite clearly the content of the curriculum.

In addition to the current affairs period, the three hours which were to be spent each week on education allowed for one period on citizenship, and one on subjects calculated to make the man a better soldier ; the third was to be devoted to the education of the man as an individual. The soldier could elect to pursue during this third hour his own interest in language, art, music, science, or manual skill.

Citizenship is difficult to define, and the War Office was wise to avoid a formal definition and to leave the actual content of the course to spontaneous growth. Instead it sanctioned the distribution of the first of a series of booklets on the "British Way and Purpose" in October 1942. This and subsequent numbers were divided into four sections, each section containing sufficient material for one or more lectures. The entire series was, in fact, a text-book on citizenship. It was authoritative, topical, and comprehensive, yet not so diffuse as to be useless as a teaching syllabus. At a later date these booklets were collected into a single volume, and as such constituted one of the best text-books on citizenship yet produced in this

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country. That this was the case is confirmed by the enormous demand for the work from civilian sources.

The winter scheme was given a further lease of life in 1943 and on this occasion General Sir Bernard Paget wrote in a letter to all his Commanding Officers :

"The policy laid down in A.C.I.1566 of 1943 is one with which I am in full agreement. I wish the spirit of it to be observed throughout 21 Army Group.... Adult Education is not a "subject" suitable only for particular times and places. It is the sum of all the influences which can be exerted in making men into wiser and better men, and therefore into better soldiers. Thus defined, education is a process equally applicable to hours of duty and periods of leisure."

Sir Bernard Paget, the Bayard of the British Army, not only contributed materially to the development of education in the invasion forces and the Middle East but carried his enthusiasm into civil life as Principal of Ashridge College, where he succeeded in bringing to the civilian students, many of them his former soldiers, the same principles of citizenship in which he so staunchly believed as a Commander-in-Chief.

The Commanding Officers responded in their turn by giving the scheme a greater measure of support than they had found possible during the previous winter. The jeremiahs said that four hours of compulsory education would kill the voluntary scheme, whereas in the event there was a great increase in educational activity. There was a remarkable increase in the number and variety of voluntary activities and the regimental officers participated in the scheme both as instructors and students. Local education authorities and the public libraries, together with the Y.M.C.A. and other similar organisations, gave every assistance to the units stationed in the locality. In some areas the Army and R.A.F. pooled resources—quite unofficially—by establishing joint classes, debating societies or music circles. One found civilians and personnel of the Forces, both men and women, co-operating with members of the Civil Defence Services in dramatic societies, brains trusts or lectures. Great use was made of the correspondence course scheme which the Army inaugurated in 1940, and which by 1943 was open also to members of the Royal Navy and Royal Air Force.

EARLY DAYS

For ten shillings a year men and women were able to receive expert tuition by the staffs of the better known civilian correspondence colleges and from private tutors. The range of subjects was wide and the standard varied from the elementary to that of the intermediate examination for a degree.

The Army during 1943 made a determined attack on illiteracy, the incidence of which was made more apparent by the all-embracing character of national service. By 1944 each major command had established a Basic Education Centre where men backward in writing, reading and spelling received special training. The intakes of the other two Services were more selective, and the problem of illiteracy was very largely confined to the Army.

Current affairs and citizenship talks were already well-known features of the soldier's life, but until 1943 the Royal Navy and R.A.F. had found it difficult to make these two activities of universal application. During this year, however, discussion groups were formed in increasing numbers in both Services, and the R.A.F. issued the first number of "Target," a fortnightly journal dealing with current national, international and Service problems.

With various modifications, the Army winter scheme of Education and its counterpart in the Navy and Air Force continued until the implementation of the educational programmes for the release period in 1945. The invasion of Normandy in 1944 caused no curtailment of the work of the educational staffs. In fact they shouldered new responsibilities. The dissemination of news, the establishment of education centres, language teaching, and assistance with the rehabilitation of the wounded in hospitals were only four of the tasks which became increasingly the responsibility of the education officer in addition to his other duties. A complement of the Army Educational Corps sailed with the early convoys to the Normandy beaches ; instructor-officers were, of course, in the warships which on June 6th stood off the coast of France, while their R.A.F. colleagues had their appropriate roles with the tactical Air Forces.

The Army Education Scheme for the Release Period and the corresponding Naval and R.A.F. Educational and Vocational

Training Schemes (E.V.T.) had already been prepared when the defeat of Germany became an accomplished fact. Although fundamentally similar, they differed in scope and, to some extent, in purpose. E.V.T. was aimed mainly at preparing men and women for their return to civil life and employment by providing them with opportunities for studying and understanding the problems of modern citizenship and for improving their qualifications for employment. In both the Navy and the Air Force the training was voluntary, except for one hour devoted to the study of citizenship. Commanding Officers were, however, required to allot up to five hours per week to the scheme during working hours for all personnel who desired to make use of it. The other educational activities which had been developed throughout the war were continued in both Services.

The R.A.F. Scheme was under way by the end of May. Instruction was in the main provided by a staff of nine thousand E.V.T. instructors. A vocational advice service was formed of officers who had received special training in giving guidance to men and women on the selection of a job, preparation for a profession, or further education.

Naval E.V.T. was not fully effective until the autumn of 1945 because the operational work of the Navy did not decrease until after the defeat of Japan. Similar in design and purpose to that of the R.A.F., the Navy's scheme was planned by the Education Department at the Admiralty. Instructor-officers and schoolmasters were in key positions during the implementation, but as E.V.T. developed a far greater number of officers and ratings were seconded from other branches to undertake the instruction.

The Army had planned somewhat differently, and no attempt was made to train men and women for specific jobs in industry or commerce owing to the many imponderables involved. Its scheme was general and pre-vocational in character, and based on work in the military unit. As in the R.A.F., owing to the almost infinite variety of circumstances of units all over the world, implementation was placed in the hands of local commanders, but once adopted in a particular unit it was compulsory for all individuals within it. A minimum six hours a week

were devoted to education : two to the compulsory subjects, citizenship and current affairs, and the rest to the subjects of the individual's own choice within the resources of the unit. There were six groups of subjects—technical, science, commerce, home and health, man and society, and arts, crafts, music and drama—for each of which curricula and method handbooks were provided, together with the relevant textbooks.

The work in units was supplemented where necessary by instruction of a more advanced character, provided at centres arranged on a territorial or "formation" basis and at residential colleges. In all three Services there were many remarkable examples of ingenuity in making provision for the infinite variety of instruction demanded. The colleges were located at home and overseas, and provided a residential course of one month's duration for persons able to profit from the instruction. About five per cent of the war-time army passed through these colleges. Thus, while the few who could make little or no effective use of the printed word continued to attend the Basic Education Centres, those whose educational standard was considerably in advance of that of the majority found in the newly established Formation Colleges opportunities for further study.

During the Release Period enrolments for correspondence courses were particularly heavy from all the Services. The Correspondence Course Handbook issued by the Army Council in October 1945 gives some indication of the variety of subjects provided under the Scheme. The student who was keen and able to apply himself to serious study could prepare for examinations leading to a professional qualification, or he could refurbish old skills prior to resuming his former civilian occupation. The correspondence course is not the mode of study for everyone, and many fell by the wayside. Many more, however, completed their courses and bridged the gap between service and civil life.

The use of the radio programme as a teaching aid is well known in civilian education, and in 1945 the British Broadcasting Corporation completed its plans for a series of programmes which would fit into the framework of the Services educational schemes. Experience had been gained during

the war in arranging special programmes for the Forces, and similar techniques were adopted by the B.B.C. in compiling the Forces Educational Broadcasts. The subject-matter used by each speaker supplemented the material contained in many of the syllabuses found in the curriculum handbooks, and a novel presentation often served to arouse flagging interest or to stimulate an enthusiastic class to even greater effort.

There are many who deplore and despise the man who spends his time collecting "academic luggage labels." Ideally, this attitude is right, but we have not yet reached the stage where our methods of assessing academic progress can be independent of the written test. It must also be recognised that the student himself derives no little satisfaction from attaining some generally recognised standard. There is, again, little doubt that many men and women in the Forces—especially the older ones—realised that their pre-war job was no longer the form of civilian employment they wished to resume on demobilisation. They were now more mature, and military service had given them an assurance and independence which made them anxious to succeed in life and often to strike out on a new line. Some found sufficient scope in jobs which demanded manual skill, but others looked to those occupations where a definite academic standard was required. The normal preliminary tests of professional bodies are not always appropriate for the candidate aged twenty-five or twenty-six, and those who brought about the Forces Preliminary Examination are to be commended for the skill they showed in making it suitable for the Service candidate and acceptable to a large number of professional organisations and to the Universities. The examination is still conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners, but changing conditions in the Services and recent modifications in the School Certificate may make a change of policy desirable.

No account of the work of the Services in this field would be complete without reference to the man who, above all others within the Services, was responsible for their educational developments during the war and demobilisation—General Sir Ronald Adam. As General Officer Commanding, Northern Command, his every action manifested his deep concern for his troops, and his far-sighted policies led to the establishment

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of the Army Bureau of Current Affairs and to the education schemes for the release period.

During the release period the education schemes of the Services were welcomed by responsible officers and accepted with enthusiasm by the thoughtful among the rank and file. It is generally recognised that the excellent morale and discipline of the service man and woman during this period was in no small measure due to the purposeful and positive activity possible under the schemes.

Full implementation of the scheme was not possible and it was never envisaged. The Services had to depend on their own resources, as they could not compete for teachers with civilian educational organisations which had to repair the ravages of the war. The result was that the instructional staff in any one place was subject to constant change due to release, and could not always be replaced. Surprisingly, also, many units found that their "operational" roles were increased rather than reduced by the cessation of hostilities. This was due to the large areas which had to be occupied, and resulted in a conflict between education and the military task to the detriment of the former.

An immense amount of good and devoted work was, however, accomplished, and—dare it be said—particularly among those to whom the more usual methods of adult education make little appeal. It is in this field that the Services to this time had made their greatest contribution.

CHAPTER 2

THE CHANGING SCENE

BY THE BEGINNING OF 1946 the Services were feeling the effects of demobilisation, or "release" as it came to be called. The older men and women who had served during the war, and who formed a cross-section of the nation in age, experience and attainment, were leaving the Forces at an increasing rate, and their places were being filled by the extreme youth of the country. Nowhere was the lack of experience and maturity felt more than in the administrative branches and instructional cadres, and this at a time when skilled administration and instruction were most needed. The situation, of course, was symptomatic of the major readjustment which was being effected in the life of the nation. Energy and resources which hitherto had been directed to the prosecution of the war were now required to meet the equally urgent problems of peace and reconstruction. This position was accepted by the Services, but recognition of the problem was not a solution, and since 1946 the Service Ministries have been intensely occupied in trying to overcome the difficulties inherent in the acute shortage of skilled manpower.

In these circumstances it was not surprising that training programmes and the allocation of time should have been subjected to special scrutiny. The need for the utmost economy in the use of men made it extremely difficult for the Services to meet their major commitments for providing the occupation forces and for completing the aftermath tasks of the war. Training methods which had been appropriate in war-time required modification if the national service man with only eighteen months to serve was ever to approach in efficiency his older comrades, whose survival during the war had often depended on personal initiative and technical perfection in the use of weapons.

The release schemes of education which had been designed to prepare the sailor, soldier and airman for resettlement in civilian life were not entirely suitable for men whose military

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service was just beginning. In 1946 the ultimate shape of the peace-time Forces was difficult to ascertain with any degree of accuracy, but it was apparent that both the regular nucleus and the large conscript component would require a basic minimum of general education as an assurance of military proficiency. It was in the Army, with its greater proportion of national service men, that the modifications were most pronounced, but before considering the new scheme it is necessary to examine the implications of the National Service Acts and the provisions for assisting the regular on the completion of his service with the Colours.

During the war the need for conscription had been admitted by the nation as a whole ; it was welcomed, in fact, as the only way of ensuring equality of effort in the attainment of victory. With the cessation of hostilities and the pressing demands for greater industrial production there were many who considered compulsory military service both an unnecessary imposition and an uneconomical use of our limited manpower. In addition there were those who were critical of the interruption which national service would cause in a young man's preparation for a career. These views were not the opinions of a partisan group. Men of all political parties, industrialists and many parents were not convinced that the best way of raising adequate forces was by conscription. A strong case for the form of national service envisaged in the 1947 Bill was put by the Government during the debate and ultimately resulted in the National Service Acts of 1947 and 1948.

In framing these Acts, the Government had to take cognisance of a very important section of the Education Act, 1944, which made it the duty of local education authorities to provide facilities for full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age, and also to make adequate provision for their leisure-time occupations in such cultural training and recreative activities as they were likely to require. This it did (Section 41, the Education Act 1944) in the following words :

"SECTION 41

FURTHER EDUCATION

Subject as hereinafter provided, it shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for their area of

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adequate facilities for further education, that is to say :—

- (a) full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age : and
- (b) leisure-time occupation, in such organised cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose.

Provided that the provision of this section shall not empower or require local education authorities to secure the provision of facilities for further education otherwise than in accordance with schemes of further education or at county colleges.”

Section 28 of the National Service Act, 1948, makes a direct reference to this duty :

“1. The duty of local education authorities under section forty-one of the Education Act, 1944, to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education shall not extend to any person during his term of whole-time service ; and a person shall, during his term of whole-time service, be exempt from compulsory attendance for further education under that Act.

2. It shall be the duty of Service Authorities to provide, so far as may be practicable, further education within the meaning of the said section forty-one for persons during their tours of whole-time service ; and, notwithstanding the provisions of the last foregoing sub-section, every local education authority shall have power to provide, or secure the provision of, such facilities for further education for such persons as aforesaid as may be agreed between them and any Service Authority, upon such terms, if any, as may be so agreed.

3. In making arrangements for such further education as aforesaid the Service Authorities shall have regard to any representations made to them or on behalf of bodies of persons concerned with education.”

It is thus clear that the Service Ministries, in relation to the education of their personnel, are under obligations similar to those of local education authorities. It should be noted that the responsibilities extend to national service man and regular alike and that the obligation may be met, by agreement, through the facilities of the local education authorities. The extent to which

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the Services have taken advantage of this opportunity will be seen later. There is also the important condition that the Services shall pay due regard to representations from the civilian educational world.

In June 1946 the then Secretary of State for War expressed the attitude of the Government towards the resettlement of the regular soldier on the completion of his Colour Service.

"In the interests of the Army and the Individual," he said, "resettlement should, we think, be provided during the latter months of his service for the soldier on a regular engagement. The object of such training will be to equip the soldier for his return to civil life and work by providing him with a knowledge of conditions and by encouraging him properly to obtain recognised trade or professional qualifications before leaving the Army. . . ."

The paragraphs in the National Service Acts apply with equal force to Navy, Army and Air Force, and the Admiralty and Air Ministry have accepted the same obligation to their regular sailors and airmen as the War Office has to the soldier.

All three Departments in conjunction with the Ministry of Labour and National Service are pursuing this matter of resettlement with vigour. It is recognised that the regular is, in a sense, the vital element in an armed service. Without a sufficiency of regulars, skilled in their own trades, in the training of men, and able to lead the national service man, the latter is bound to suffer and the Services will suffer too. It became urgent to promote the recruitment of the regular, and since the period of service must be limited, often terminating at forty or earlier, good men were reluctant to come forward unless there were good prospects of an after-career. Resettlement is inseparably linked with education in the Services, as it is in civil life, for the latter must always provide the broad basis of knowledge and skill from which the more specialised requirements of employment can be developed.

Three main factors, therefore, influenced the preparation of the plans for education in the Services during the interim period between the end of the release period and the establishment of the Forces on a permanent peace-time basis. These

three factors were as follows. First, the apparent acceptance by Parliament and the nation of conscription as a feature of national life—the knowledge, in fact, that men of all grades of society, and whatever their ultimate professions or trades might be, would spend part of their lives under training as members of the Armed Forces. Second, the new trends in civilian education. Third, the experience gained during the war, and between the wars, in organising education as an integral part of Service life and training.

It was clear that the education schemes of the three Services could not be identical. The Navy and Air Force require a large number of technicians, and the use they can make of national service men is conditioned by this fact. Many naval and air trades require of those who enter them long periods of training and preparation. The duration of compulsory service under the 1947 and 1948 Acts barely provides this opportunity, except for those whose civilian occupations have already given them a considerable measure of the knowledge and skill required. Certain branches of the Army, such as the Royal Corps of Signals and the Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers, are, of course, in a similar position. The War Office in planning an education scheme for the soldier had to pay more attention to the needs of the men affected by the National Service Acts because of the large numbers involved.

To appreciate fully the task of education in the Royal Navy, it is necessary to take into account the role, organisation and circumstances of the Service and its personnel. The intellectual standard of both officers and ratings is relatively high. Illiteracy among the men on long-term engagements is unknown. Thus education has always had as its main object the task of providing naval personnel with the fundamental knowledge, primarily in mathematics and science, necessary to enable them to perform efficiently the duties for which they have enlisted. Instruction has generally been provided wherever the men are serving, whether afloat or ashore; further, as all instruction must have a naval bias if it is to be of any value, education officers serve at sea as well as in the shore establishments. In shore establishments and in ships, but particularly in ships, officers of all branches live in close contact. Each has his part to play in the

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life of the ship and the education officer no less than the executive officer must be a full member of the naval community, performing not only his special duty as an instructor but assuming where necessary a fully combatant role. Naval officers in general expect education to serve the practical requirements of the Navy. This type of education has developed in response to the demands of the Service over a period of two hundred years, and it is difficult to distinguish between what might be called general education and naval training. These points, and the unique relationship existing between officer and rating, had to be taken into account when plans were being made for naval education during the interim period.

The scheme, as promulgated in May 1946, was a logical development of the Adult Education and E.V.T. programmes modified to suit the requirements of a Service which by that date was composed predominantly of regular personnel on long-term engagements. Thus the emphasis, which during the peak period of release had been on vocational training, was now directed towards technical and basic education, current affairs and cultural activities. Technical education, closely integrated with and inseparable from technical training, predominated; but current affairs was made, as far as was practicable, a compulsory subject. Commanding officers were asked to encourage general education and cultural activities.

In recent years it has become clear that the Royal Air Force will have a critical part to play if this country again becomes involved in a major war. The need for attracting to the Service a greater number of regular recruits is one of the most pressing problems the Air Ministry has had to face since the release period, and although the national service intakes have supplied a solution to a very limited extent, the general problem remains acute. The developments in aeronautical science and aircraft design during the past ten years have been tremendous, and to be a really efficient fighting machine the R.A.F. must provide, as an integral and important part of its training, an education scheme designed to make the officer and airman both proficient in the performance of the tasks allotted to them and sufficiently adaptable in mind and body to be able to meet constantly varying conditions.

Like the Royal Navy, but some nine months later owing to the different rate of release, the R.A.F. in 1946 issued instructions for the full implementation of the General Education Scheme, which since 1945 had tended to be a part, and not the most important part, of the E.V.T. programme. Except for certain residual commitments E.V.T. ceased at the end of 1946. The new scheme was a development of the original one set up early in the 1920's, but was rather more comprehensive ; increased attention was paid to citizenship, current affairs, and those arts and crafts of a cultural nature which are valuable as a medium of individual self-expression. Attendance was voluntary except when a commanding officer considered compulsion was necessary in the interests of the Service. A novel, though not entirely new, feature was the requirement that for each hour granted in working time for educational purposes the airman or airwoman was expected to give at least an equal period of his own time either to class work or private study.

The post-war Army differs in many essential respects from its predecessor of 1939. Then it was a relatively small professional force entirely composed of regulars. Now it is part regular and part national service; the two elements are inextricably interwoven into its texture. They are equally important from a national point of view, but since the training of the national service man depends upon the quality of the regular, the priorities inevitably move in his direction. All this is also true of the other two Services where the two classes are serving together.

As already mentioned, by the middle of 1946 the release scheme of education was becoming less and less appropriate to the needs of the new Army, and yet a complete reversion to the pre-war scheme was not possible in view of its changed composition and the developments in civil education with the statutory obligation of the Act of 1947. All the Services felt in full measure the difficulties and shortages apparent in civil life. Particularly was this the case with regard to educational personnel ; and as the Army, unlike the Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force, was constrained to draw its educational instructors largely from the ranks of the national service men it consequently suffered all the disadvantages of rapid changes of staff.

When the scheme for this interim period was planned these difficulties were foreseen, and although the instructor problem was and still is admittedly acute, the primary consideration had to be the nature and content of the new educational provisions. The wide range of educational standards of the personnel of the Army created a situation which the Royal Navy and R.A.F. escaped to a great extent. It necessitated a scheme which, though flexible enough to suit the many levels of intellectual attainment, was in itself a comprehensive whole.

The soldier was regarded on the one hand as a citizen in uniform for a period, a citizen member of the military community, and on the other as an individual with unique requirements. It was necessary to provide, for the former, general education in the usual fundamental subjects (English, calculation, science, history and geography) and in current affairs and citizenship : and for the latter, individual education, that is to say the making available of the widest possible range of subjects at the differing levels appropriate to a complete age group of the nation.

Briefly, the Army set out to provide general education in working time from its own teaching resources (the Royal Army Educational Corps), and individual education, above the level of the elementary work in the unit, by making the fullest possible use of civilian educational resources and, where this was not possible, by providing army colleges and education centres.

The present situation of education in the Navy, Army and Air Force will be discussed in detail in Chapters Three, Four and Five. At this point it is worth while to consider the underlying principles and philosophy which should govern the education of such a large section of the youth of this country.

The attack on the democratic way of life is now probably more intense than it has ever been. Between 1939 and 1945 the nation fought for the survival of its way of life and institutions, and although the world is apparently at peace, the attack continues in an insidious and more dangerous form. The challenge must be met ; to ignore the danger is to invite disaster. The totalitarian community is dynamic and vigorous and its whole *raison d'être* is the conversion of others. Those

who accept democracy as the adult and most satisfactory form of society require the same measure of faith and dynamism if they are to survive.

Dr. W. G. Stead has said that the marks of a democratic society are, first, a readiness to search for the truth and follow it wherever it may lead, irrespective of personal prejudices, vested interest, or the difficulties the quest will encounter, and second, a belief that the problems of society are best solved when all members participate in the solution, refusing merely to accept uncritically a solution imposed from above. This means that in a real democracy each citizen must feel he has a place and a purpose. Thus it is the aim of education to give to the individual a realisation of where he fits into the scheme of things and the skills and knowledge to do so. That he will fail to appreciate his part in society without an understanding of its institutions cannot be gainsaid, and as the existing values of a nation determine its form and structure, education has the task of inculcating these ideals in the minds of the rising generation. This must be the philosophy underlying educational work in the Services.

The mature section of a community—that part of it which at any one period contains its leaders and the guardians of its institutions—often fails to recognise that, although ideals are relatively permanent, form and structure are mutable, and that what appeared reasonable enough to the father in his youth may not be wholly acceptable to the son. The failure to acknowledge this fundamental truth is the cause of that cleavage which frequently exists between an older and a younger generation. The former refuses to accept the desire for progress as a sign of healthy growth, while the latter, in the absence of sympathetic guidance, pours condemnation on an attitude which to it appears totally reactionary.

It is all too easy to level the accusation of ultra-conservatism against the Services, and to some the hierarchical structure accompanied by traditional ceremonial appears anachronistic. We must recognise, however, that their customs and ceremonies are the manifestations of corporate loyalty in organisations which in an age of scientific exploration have constantly to adapt themselves to changing conditions while retaining an

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essential stability. There is also little doubt that many a youth has found in the Forces a degree of satisfaction and well-being which his civilian environment has denied him. This is not to suggest that society is essentially imperfect, for all too frequently youth's frustration is due to youth's inability to express individuality in the *milieu* of a highly integrated community. The simpler life of a soldier may, therefore, be a means of assisting many towards the resolution of this conflict.

Eventually both the regular service man and the conscript have to face the return to civilian life, where they will be required to assume the full responsibilities of citizenship. It is their responsibility, not society's, to make the necessary adaptation when the uniform is doffed. How successfully they will do this will depend on the preparation they have received while in the Forces. Service life generally can develop the qualities of initiative and loyalty, which are just as much assets to the civilian as they are to the soldier, by education schemes and other forms of training which have as their aim the development of personality. They must also be unmistakably purposive and not rely for effect on a passive and ill-defined influence. It is reasonable more specifically to suggest that, first, education in the Services should enable a man to acquire the degree of proficiency in mathematics and English which is necessary if he is fully to understand the story of human development as told through geography, history and science. Secondly, the serviceman should grow to appreciate the best in literature, art and music ; thirdly, he should be encouraged to make some preparation for his return to civilian life and employment. These three aspects can be identified in the interim schemes which came into being at the end of the release period, and which with some modifications are still operative. There is also little doubt that in their final form the Services schemes will comprise general, individual and resettlement education, even though nomenclature and emphasis may differ.

During and since the war the relationship between the Ministry of Education and the Services has grown more intimate and has not been without benefit to both. Under official arrangements certain of His Majesty's Inspectors have co-operated with the Royal Air Force and the Inspectors of the

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Directorate of Army Education in visiting units at home and abroad in order to give advice and guidance. The prestige enjoyed by H.M.I.s and their breadth of experience have made them more than official visitors, while their attitude to the young instructor has been at once friendly and encouraging. H.M.I.s in their turn have found the Services' work in adult education a project well worth studying, more especially in view of the provisions for county colleges in the 1944 Education Act.

The developments envisaged under this Act have caused the Services—more particularly the Army—to transfer the charge of military children's schools at home to local education authorities. Previously the larger garrisons maintained and staffed their own schools. The position overseas is interesting in that the predominating Service still provides the school but that the teachers are found locally or by secondment from local education authorities.

This is perhaps a convenient place to mention the two new consultative bodies which, in addition to their other functions, help to ensure the interchange of ideas between civilian and Service education. The Central Advisory Council, which had given such a great measure of help during the war years, met for the last time in June 1948; the occasion was marked by the generous tributes paid to it by the Service Departments through their Directors of Education. The gratitude of the Forces as a whole was put on record some weeks later in letters which the Council received from the Admiralty, War Office and Air Ministry.

These compliments were well deserved, for the Central Advisory Council had brought together the educational resources of the country and placed them at the disposal of the men and women in the Forces. As early as 1946, however, changing conditions, some of which have been discussed in this chapter, made it necessary to revise the arrangements for civilian co-operation in Services education. An Army Education Advisory Board and a Royal Air Force Education Advisory Council had been in existence some two years at the time the C.A.C. was disbanded, and the Royal Navy has since formed a similar body. During this time a certain amount of confusion had arisen over the exact role of the three bodies. A happy

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solution was reached as the result of negotiations between the interested parties.

The advisory functions of the old Central Advisory Council have been transferred to the individual advisory bodies, which include—by invitation of the Service departments—persons of distinction from the organisations covered by the former C.A.C. The administrative and executive functions were taken over by a similar Central Committee for Adult Education in H.M. Forces, on which the Services are represented by full members. The work, in the field, of the former regional committees is now sponsored by the university extra-mural departments in areas where there are sufficient Service personnel. The new Central Committee acts as a channel for the transmission of finance to the universities. Although the respective Service departments must constitutionally always be responsible for major policy, it is hoped that the new machinery will forge a permanent bond between civilian education and the Forces. Within the broad framework of major policy formulated by the departments with the advice from the advisory boards, many matters of minor policy and execution will fall to be dealt with by the new committee, which will become a free forum for the exchange of ideas between the civilian and Service educational worlds.

This concludes the brief study of the transition from war to peace as it has affected education. Conditions are at present more stable than they were two or three years ago, when the interim education schemes were initiated, and it is now possible to examine the current state of naval, army and air force education with reasonable assurance that the system will remain relatively unchanged during the years to come.

CHAPTER 3

THE ROYAL NAVY

THE ROYAL NAVY has never failed to capture the imagination of the British peoples in both peace and war. Even in an age of atomic warfare it has yet to be proved that command of the sea is not essential to our survival as a free nation. The Navy appears as something of a paradox, for although tradition and well-tried methods are its very life-blood, yet freshness of outlook and versatility are two of the main characteristics of the Senior Service. The development of high explosives brought into being armoured vessels and high-velocity weapons ; the threat from the air brought the aircraft-carrier ; and the technicalities of radar are of the very essence of modern naval science and warfare. All these indications of a modern approach to ancient duties, and an attitude which is tolerant in normal times but terribly aggressive in attack, have gained for the Navy an unrivalled admiration. This is reflected in the recruiting figures ; although, in common with the other Services, the Navy is affected by the shortage of recruits which follows any major war, she can still rely confidently on the longer continuous service engagements. Consequently the Admiralty has been able to plan its future education and training more confidently than the other two fighting services, and the modifications of normal training to meet the needs of the smaller national service element have been fewer and less radical.

During the recent war naval education continued to function smoothly even with the swollen demands made upon it by entirely new technical developments; this is indicative of the fundamental role it plays in producing competent officers and men, all with specialist qualifications. Space in ships is severely limited, and admits of no passengers in a ship's company ; each man has a specific contribution to make to the efficiency of the ship as a fighting machine. This fact and the insistence that education, like all other activities, shall be directly linked with practical requirements, are fundamental to a complete appreciation of the scope of the Navy's educational organisation. It is evident,

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moreover, that the progress of scientific development during the war is making training in underlying theory more necessary than ever before. In this sphere of fundamental knowledge education in the Royal Navy comes into its own by means of the Instructor Branch, which as always is primarily concerned with teaching officers and ratings the theoretical basis of their professional work. It will, therefore, be more convenient to consider the various ships and establishments in which Instructor Officers serve than to attempt any rigid classification of education as technical or general.

The Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, the public school of the Navy, is rightly famous as the establishment which produces naval officers of the future. Cadets had originally received their early training in ships specially manned for the purpose, but in 1903 it became desirable to broaden the curriculum by including general subjects and activities which could only be made available in a shore establishment located close to good sailing water. Dartmouth is now providing its cadets with a liberal education as well as professional training. Under the supervision of a headmaster, civilian masters of graduate status teach science, mathematics, modern languages, history and English side by side with their naval colleagues, who deal with the customs and technicalities of the sea. Classics have no place in the curriculum at Dartmouth, and the time usually spent on this branch of knowledge in a normal public school is devoted to seamanship, navigation and engineering. The responsibility for these three subjects rests with the officers of the Executive, Instructor and Engineering branches respectively. A notable departure from the days when naval cadets received little more than a narrow professional training afloat is the encouragement now given to individual study, and the better students in their last year at the college are allowed to develop their choice of the humanities or the sciences. Incentive to study is provided by gain of seniority on passing out, and arrangements have also been made with several universities for the grant of exemption from their entrance examinations to those cadets who pass well in the final Dartmouth examination.

The Royal Navy has developed a form of discipline which has no exact counterpart in the other two Services. The

relationship of the officer to the rating has stood the test of time and two major wars have modified it but little. A ship's company is in many ways a unique community. A soldier and airman can leave barracks after duty hours, seek fresh company, and enjoy the benefits of a change from the exigencies of the service routine. The sailor on board has no such relief, and is thrown into close relationship with his fellows in conditions where living space is necessarily limited. In these circumstances privacy is much sought after, and morale can suffer unless each man learns tolerance and recognises the rights of his messmates. A code of discipline to suit this community is not the creation of a day, nor is its maintenance the task of a novice untutored in the art of leadership. The Navy recognises these facts in the training it gives to its future officers : Dartmouth teaches not only mathematics, languages or science, but self-reliance, initiative, and the management of men. Under a system of "Houses" run by executive officers, the cadets are taught to live as members of a well-regulated society, each in his turn assuming a measure of authority and responsibility, and all learning to obey loyally the commands of these leaders. Thus naval discipline and procedure are instilled throughout the training, so that the cadet on reaching the Training Cruiser is already well versed in the traditions and customs of the Service he has joined. Here, in company with the Special Entry cadets who have served for one term only at Dartmouth after entering directly from the public or secondary schools, he receives further training in professional and technical subjects. Instructor Officers are borne in the cruiser to continue the instruction in theoretical and practical navigation, applied mathematics, and elementary ship construction. At the end of eight months comes promotion to midshipman and service for 16 months in the sea-going ships of the Fleet, where again instruction in navigation continues under Instructor Officers.

The Royal Naval College at Greenwich provides instruction at a higher level, in all branches of theoretical and scientific study bearing on their professions, for officers and some civilian specialists of the Admiralty. The work is mainly of an advanced standard in gunnery, navigation, engineering, physics and electrical engineering, and naval architecture ; although the

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bias is definitely scientific—as it must be to meet the requirements of the Navy—a general education and war course is provided for junior officers on their return from their time at sea as midshipmen. This course (with no examination), besides revising and supplementing the mathematical and scientific knowledge of the young officer, aims at broadening his mental outlook and teaches clarity of thought and expression. The staff of the college consists of Instructor Officers and civilian lecturers. Navigation, naval architecture, mathematics, applied mechanics, science, history and languages are the main branches of study, each being the responsibility of a professor appointed by the Admiralty. The Dean (a senior Instructor Officer) is also Director of Studies and chairman of the board which plans the courses for the various categories of officer.

All Engineer Officers of the Royal Navy receive their basic professional training at the Royal Naval Engineering College, Manadon, lately removed from Keyham, near Devonport. The specialised nature of the course limits the amount of general education, but economics, English, and languages have their place in a curriculum mainly devoted to mathematics, science, and engineering theory and practice. These studies and the related practical work done in the workshops take two years, and later, after a period at sea, a further specialist course of one year is given in marine, air or armament engineering according to the specialisation of the officer.

At Manadon the staff consists in the main of Engineer and Instructor Officers, but a few civilian specialists are also employed. Here, as well as in other technical establishments, Instructor Officers on the staff alternate their tours of duty ashore with service afloat, thus ensuring that continuity and experience in the Fleet are closely related to the theoretical instruction given ashore. The tutorial system of instruction is adopted at the college and the standard reached is that of a Bachelor of Science (Engineering) degree with additional practical engineering to include production and repair planning.

At the three establishments and in the Training Cruiser just described the Navy trains the majority of its permanent officers. To qualify at all stages candidates must have a high level of intellectual ability and be competent in the practical work

which forms part of every course. The curricula are comprehensive but mainly scientific and technical, and the young man who attends either Greenwich or Manadon receives an education which compares favourably with a university degree course. The same high standards of training are also provided for the younger men selected from the lower deck as possible officers ; up to twenty-five per cent of officers in the Royal Navy may come from this source. Candidates for the Executive, the Engineering and the Supply branches, and for the Royal Marines, are given special facilities in the Upper Yardmen's College at Exbury, H.M.S. *Hawke*, to acquire the educational, cultural and professional standards necessary for the acting rank of Sub-Lieutenant prior to joining the main stream of young officers at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich. In H.M.S. *Hawke*, Instructor Officers provide the instruction in navigation, mathematics, science, English, history, geography and current affairs.

From its earliest days the Navy has been keen to attract to its service boys of about sixteen years of age. Few will question the wisdom of this plan, for history has amply justified it, and present-day trends suggest that the need for a long and thorough training is still paramount. Although, during the war, recruitment under this scheme was reduced, the number of boys entering the boys' training establishments has again increased with the arrival of peace. Two such establishments train entrants to the seaman and communication branches : H.M.S. *Ganges* at Shotley, and H.M.S. *St. Vincent* at Gosforth. For their first year the boys remain ashore, becoming accustomed to the ways of the Navy and doing both school and professional training. During this time their progress is watched very carefully, and the brighter ones are encouraged to work for early advancement in the Service. All boys are taught to handle boats and swim ; there are ample facilities for games, and a graded course of physical training leads to a balanced physical development. It is also through these activities that qualities of leadership are developed.

Every boy in the Navy looks forward to his first day at sea in a warship. This opportunity comes after ten months in the training establishment, and during this second phase further

instruction is given for the advanced class boy in the technical duties peculiar to each branch. This is done in the Boys Training Destroyer Flotilla ; and at the age of eighteen years the young ordinary seaman takes his place with the other ratings in the normal units of the Fleet. From now on he serves as a seaman for periods of seven or twelve years, after which he may re-engage for a pension earned after twenty-two years of total service. If proficient he will eventually gain promotion to Petty Officer, and may rise to commissioned rank. Throughout his service he finds that the greatest guarantee of success is his own ability and industry. The Navy jealously maintains its standards where promotion is concerned, and through a system of examinations it ensures that the candidate for the higher ratings is qualified educationally and professionally for the rank he hopes to gain.

Boy musicians and buglers are entered at the age of 14 to the Royal Naval School of Music. Here, in addition to a comprehensive musical training, they continue their general education and eventually go to sea in Royal Marine bands. The organisation follows very closely that of a good secondary modern school. Normally each musician is taught to play two instruments, and special aptitude is rewarded by promotion to non-commissioned rank. Advancement to Bandmaster is naturally more difficult to achieve, but is open to those who show outstanding ability. The general education provided at the school is very thorough, and has been approved by the Ministry of Education as suitable for boys up to the age of fifteen years.

Artificer Apprentices are selected by competitive examination approaching the school certificate in standard. A number already possess this certificate on entry, but the remainder usually reach an equivalent standard early in the courses. A sixteen-month basic course (on the lines of that provided by a good technical college) is given to all apprentices in H.M.S. *Fisgard* at Devonport prior to their selection for specialist trades. Instruction in theoretical subjects is closely related to the basic practical training given in the factory attached to the establishment. The final trade training, to complete a course of four years' duration, is given for Engine-room, Ordnance and

Shipwright apprentices in H.M.S. *Caledonia*; for Aircraft apprentices at Arbroath; and for the Electrical apprentices in H.M.S. *Collingwood*. At these establishments practical training and theoretical instruction proceed side by side and cover all aspects of the machinery and equipment for which the apprentices later become responsible. Large numbers of Instructor Officers are included in the staffs of these establishments and undertake most of the theoretical and also a large part of the actual technical instruction. Their work in technical instruction continues to expand, because it is recognised that in this connection their experience in teaching and knowledge of instructional method is often of more value than the greater experience of the specialist officer of the particular department concerned.

Preparation for the many specialised branches of the Royal Navy is the task of a host of technical establishments where courses varying widely in length and content are given to selected officers and ratings. It is not proposed to describe in detail the form of training provided, but developments in aviation, in radar and in weapons, in ships, submarines and carriers during and since the war have caused a startling increase in the number and variety of these courses. Specialist officers or ratings are responsible for the practical application of the theory, which is taught by officers of the Instructor Branch. Each, however, must understand the work of the other, and as the standards required by the students are, in some cases, extremely high, instructors tend to specialise in one particular aspect of the work. In all cases—whether in gunnery, torpedo and anti-submarine warfare, navigation, or naval aviation—the educational instruction is carefully planned and graded to assist the technical work with which it is associated. It is significant that the officers engaged in these establishments are also employed from time to time in writing the standard technical manuals issued by the Admiralty.

So far in this brief survey attention has been confined to a description of the educational organisation in training institutions ashore. It was in the colleges and schools that the modern form of naval education began, and in these establishments its scope can still best be appreciated; but the survey

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would be far from complete without a mention of the education scheme which operates in ships afloat.

In ships at sea Instructor Officers take their places alongside the rest of the officers, and are not only responsible for all educational work but are also an integral part of the fighting organisation of the ship, usually being engaged with the plotting arrangements by which the command is kept apprised of the dispositions of all ships and squadrons operating in action. The majority of Instructor Officers are also qualified in meteorology, and though in aircraft-carriers an additional Instructor Officer is borne for full-time meteorological duties, in other ships meteorology is yet another side-line of this officer. Aboard ship, conditions for formal education of any kind are difficult. Only in the larger vessels is it possible to set aside a space for a classroom, and even this accommodation may have to serve as information room, library, handicraft shop, or even as a temporary chapel. The Instructor Officer, however, is accustomed to such situations, though in the Training Cruiser and in the Training Battleship Squadron (in which the adult entries of the Seaman branch receive their initial sea training) the school accommodation is more permanent. Except in carriers, one or two Instructor Officers are included in the complement of a big ship. In the case of destroyers, one only can be spared for each flotilla. Normally such an officer's day will be fully occupied with the instruction of midshipmen ; with the boys, whose schooling, until they are rated, is a compulsory part of their ship training ; and with arranging other educational activities. Nevertheless a very substantial amount of instruction takes place after working hours, and even before the war this was looked upon as the normal run of things. Every encouragement is given to ratings to make use of the facilities provided by their Instructor Officers to prepare for examinations necessary for advancement, to improve their general education, or to take up some dog-watch hobby. Instruction in current affairs is part of the general education provided for the ship's company, and is compulsory so far as circumstances permit. To assist Instructor Officers, especially in the sphere of further education, suitably qualified national service ratings are entered in the Royal Navy. Their duties are

various. They may, according to their knowledge and ability, help in the preparation of ratings for the more elementary Service education tests, give instruction in languages and other theoretical subjects, develop skill in some section of handicraft or art, and see that information rooms are kept attractive and up to date.

The range of subjects which the Instructor Officer may be called upon to cover is clearly very wide, ranging from art to mechanics. Moreover he must be ready to act as scientific adviser to his commanding officer. The fact should not be lost sight of, however, that the community life of a ship with its art of living together is in itself truly educational in character, without the formal "subjects" attributed to education by civilian custom. The lessons in the art of living learned during the course of a "shake-down" cruise by all members of a ship's company cannot but be of the greatest value in after life. Furthermore, the sailor sees the world and often plays an important part in current events. He becomes the handy man *par excellence*, and in the life of our island home the experienced sailor is generally recognised with affection as the epitome of alert informed manhood, crowned with the saving grace of humour.

In shore stations the organisation of education, other than service training, is naturally very much easier. Space, so scarce a commodity in a ship, is usually ample ashore, and the Navy, like the other Services, can call upon the assistance of the civilian authorities. Lectures on a variety of topics, classes in foreign languages, music, and handicrafts, are some of the activities which can be found more frequently on shore, although they are popular at sea. Amateur dramatics, too, have always found a place in the life of the Navy, and with the object of improving the standards of production and acting, play-readings are encouraged ; on the home station a drama festival, with a final contest on a London stage, has induced many hundreds of men and women to occupy their leisure hours in the thrills of production and acting. Though no such record as that of an East Indiaman in 1607, that *Hamlet* was "acted abord me . . . to keep my people from idleness and unlawful games or sleep," is available for one of His Majesty's ships,

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there is little doubt that play-acting was indulged in in the Fleet at an early date.

Nowadays it is rightly recognised that English language and literature have a vital part to play in education, even in education so predominantly technical as that required by the Royal Navy. So too the varied hobbies, from model aeroplanes to "tiddly work" with Turks' heads and multi-coloured rugs, dear to the heart of most sailors, all take their place in that wider education of to-day. Where an Instructor Officer is not borne, as in some of the smaller ships, one of the ship's officers acts as Education Officer to supervise voluntary study. A volunteer from the ship's company undertakes the duties of Acting Schoolmaster (for which he receives a small allowance) and assists ratings to prepare for their advancement by examinations or other work. In such conditions the Forces Correspondence Courses are a necessary facility, and steady enrolments indicate the value the sailor attaches to this scheme. The range of subjects is sufficiently extensive to meet most of his requirements, whether they be derived from purely personal interests or from a desire to enhance his prospects of promotion. Of special interest are the correspondence courses conducted by Instructor Officers at the Electrical School, for the benefit of those officers and ratings at sea who wish to take the Intermediate and Final grades of the City and Guilds Electrical Engineering and Telecommunications Examinations. By these courses a very high percentage of men keen for advancement achieve this qualification, which is recognised both in and out of the Service. Private study of all kinds is encouraged; for this purpose an excellent library system provides reference libraries in all ships, and each home port or foreign station base has a loan reference library of over six thousand volumes. Films, tools and handicraft material, electric gramophone players and records are supplied on quite a generous scale, and the Instructor Officer or Acting Schoolmaster is always ready to provide or improvise the facilities the sailor needs in order to improve his standard of general education. Selective recruitment in the first place means that the recruits who join the Service have reached a reasonable level of intellectual attainment, and if they can assimilate the specialist knowledge connected with the

duties they have to perform, the Naval education service then points and encourages them on the way to further advancement.

In addition to the provision of opportunities for further education for officers and ratings throughout the period of their Service engagements, special care is taken to see that towards the end of their service courses are available for them to improve their prospects of civilian employment. At Portsmouth, Devonport and Chatham there are Educational and Vocational Training Centres at which the more popular courses, such as wood-work, metal-work and boot-repairing, are held. Other courses have been instituted as appropriate, such as electrical conversion courses, which enable a rating's technical skill acquired in the Service to be adapted to suit civilian requirements. For the more theoretical subjects such as accountancy, selection can be made from a large variety of correspondence courses, at very small cost to the officer or rating concerned.

It had long been recognised that it was important that officer and rating instructors, though specialists in their subjects, should benefit by studying the principles of good instruction ; in 1943 regular courses in instructional technique were started at the more important naval training establishments. These courses are administered by the Education Department of the Admiralty, and because of their professional training and experience the officers in charge are Instructor Officers assisted by specialist Petty Officers. Courses are now a permanent feature of naval training, and officers and rating instructors receive this instruction in instructional technique as a normal part of their professional training. Each course not only covers the general principles of instruction, but also deals with instructional methods applicable to particular subjects. Regular courses are held at the gunnery, electrical, signal, anti-submarine and naval aviation schools. Courses of a more general nature are held in the three main depots, in conjunction with the Petty Officers' Leadership Courses. Further courses are held from time to time at the Navigation and Submarine Schools. In some of these schools the production of training aids, including instructional films and film strips, is included in the duties of the officer in charge of the

course ; his advice is regularly sought on methods of improvement in the standard of class instruction and the organisation of technical instruction.

Since 1843 the Admiralty has been a pioneer in the field of technical education by establishing schools in the dockyards at home "to provide and maintain a system of part-time education whereby the men in the dockyard might develop their abilities and improve their position." This system was later extended to the yards abroad. These schools now provide an organised training for civilian apprentices, partly in working hours and partly in their own time, in mathematics and engineering science. The courses last two, three or four years and embrace both theory and laboratory work in addition to practical work in the dockyard. There is a drastic process of elimination at the end of the second and third year courses, and only the most intelligent and industrious apprentices complete the four-year course and are able to take full advantage of the opportunities offered for further careers. Some gain cadetships into the Royal Corps of Naval Constructors and others win Whitworth or other scholarships, enabling them to proceed to universities to complete their training. These men eventually rise to the higher posts in their professions in Admiralty service or in the outside world. The staffs of the Dockyard Schools consist of civilian specialists with high technical qualifications and teaching experience, assisted in the lower school by part-time technical men from the dockyard departments. Throughout, therefore, the practical nature of the instruction is pronounced ; this is equally true at the schools abroad, though there the permanent staff consists of Instructor Officers.

The education of children of naval men abroad before the war was a small problem, since men were seldom accompanied by their families to naval bases on foreign stations when opportunities of seeing them there were so few and far between. Both in Malta and in Bermuda, however, schools did exist, attached to the apprentices' dockyard schools there. Since the war the Admiralty has undertaken to provide educational facilities for naval and dockyard children in overseas bases, and there is a growing tendency for families to move to foreign

stations now that married quarters are being provided. The Royal Naval School at Malta is established in new buildings on the island, and provides within its crowded walls an education up to school certificate standard and special classes for the few preparing for higher school certificate. Its seven hundred children will be augmented from a big waiting list as soon as further accommodation becomes available. In Bermuda the old accommodation is full to capacity, and the overflow is temporarily accommodated in the Army schools at Hamilton. At Gibraltar the new Dockyard and Technical School provides the usual schooling for the dockyard apprentices and yard boys, and is at the same time the secondary technical school for the colony's civilian educational system, which also provides for Service children. The school is thus especially interesting in that it is administered by the Flag Officer, Gibraltar, in consultation with the civilian Director of Education, Gibraltar. There are also naval children's schools at Singapore and Trincomalee which are expanding rapidly.

Examinations constitute an important feature of naval training for officers and men by ensuring adequate standards of entrance, testing the satisfactory completion of training courses, and assisting with the internal promotion scheme of the Service. Except for the examinations for "Special Entry" cadetships and dockyard apprentices entry, all examinations for entry in the Royal Navy are set by the Education Department of the Admiralty. The Admiralty qualifying examinations for the completion of various training courses comprise those for constructors and for advanced electrical and engineering courses, dockyard apprentices "finals," passing-out examinations at the Royal Naval Engineering College, Manadon, and the Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, the qualifying examination for artificer apprentices in their four trades, and, at the lowest level, the passing-out examination of boys leaving the boys training establishments. The standard of these examinations ranges from honours degree downwards. The Admiralty educational examinations for promotion, taken in the Fleet, have of course to be timed to conform with the movements of the main squadrons. The most familiar is Educational Test I, in English and arithmetic, which provides

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the educational qualification for advancement to "leading rate" in all branches. The temporary waiving of this qualification during the war has led to a great increase in the number of candidates for the test. By passing Educational Test II, boys can get accelerated advancement to the "ordinary" rate; still further up the scale is the Higher Educational Test. This latter test covers a range of subjects—English, navigation, mathematics, mechanics, electricity, general knowledge, history and geography—of approximately matriculation standard, and ratings are required to pass it prior to consideration for commissioned rank, or to pass in certain specified subjects for promotion to the Branch List (originally Warrant Officers List). Altogether the Education Department of the Admiralty controls some 170 different examinations, and there are other examinations for which local Flag Officers are responsible, Instructor Officers acting as examiners in their special subjects.

During the war years the general education of the Women's Royal Naval Service was the responsibility of their Director, but that responsibility and provision is now the concern of the Director of the Education Department of the Admiralty. The W.R.N.S. enlist only girls of relatively high intellectual standard and there is little need for basic education. Technical education is given in the normal establishments, and, as would be expected, the cultural aspect receives most attention in the education scheme for women. The work is almost entirely voluntary, but time is allocated in working hours for instruction in current affairs. So far as possible this general education for W.R.N.S. is closely allied to that for the men, but the particularly feminine requirements of further education are most conveniently provided in the dog-watches at their own quarters. A small number of W.R.N.S. (education) ratings qualified to teach normal subjects also run classes in handicrafts, needlework, dressmaking and cookery. The domestic science instruction, the province of the expert, is catered for in mobile housecraft vans fitted with cookers, washing machines, refrigerators, and all modern kitchen equipment. These self-contained units can camp at any isolated naval aviation station or establishment and provide

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instruction for small classes of W.R.N.S. No girl need lack teaching in the arts of housewifery with such facilities brought to her quarters.

Before concluding this account of the Naval system of education mention ought to be made of the provision for education in the Royal Marines—the closely allied Service. Though formerly the Royal Marines were served exclusively by their own schoolmasters, Instructor Officers have now assumed this responsibility and provide education on lines very similar to those in the Royal Navy. In addition to technical training in gunnery, the Royal Marine has opportunities for taking a general educational course, which if he so desires will assist him in obtaining the qualifications necessary for promotion. Arrangements are also made for handicrafts, music and art classes ; in fact, all the further educational facilities provided for sailors are equally available to the Royal Marine.

Instructor Officers are also attached to the Commando Brigade, where in addition to their educational responsibilities they take part in all activities, and in operations act as assistant intelligence officers.

In concluding this brief survey of Naval education it must be remarked that in neither of the other two Services do we find education so highly integrated with training, nor is the level of technical instruction surpassed even in the Royal Air Force.

CHAPTER 4

THE ARMY

THE STORY of Army Education is the record of the idealism and enthusiasm, coupled with realism, of those who have been engaged in the planning and implementation of the various schemes over a period of nearly two hundred years. In the early days the motive of the instruction given in regiments and schools was purely utilitarian, and so was no better and no worse than that which actuated the founders of the Sunday schools or dame schools towards the close of the eighteenth century. The conception of a liberal education for the masses was not generally accepted until the Education Act of 1902, and only since 1944 has some form of secondary education been the right of every boy and girl.

The Army has kept abreast of these developments. The Duke of York's and Queen Victoria Schools have always provided something more than a basic education in the three R's ("reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic"), while the old system of Army examinations, much maligned though it has been, did provide a form of fundamental adult education for soldiers for which there was no counterpart in civil life. In adult education and in combating illiteracy the War Office has often given the lead by offering to every soldier the form of education most suitable to his needs—and this in the course of his working day. One might reflect that at present the same facilities do not exist in industry to any great extent.

In attempting to assess the present situation of education in the Army, pride of place must be given to the main scheme of education promulgated by the Army Council in 1947 as an interim scheme, and finally modified in 1949 to suit peace-time conditions. This scheme has yet to come to fruition mainly because of lack of suitably qualified personnel and unstable conditions. There is every reason to anticipate that these conditions will steadily improve, and that with positive constructive effort over the next few years the Army will have a thoroughly sound system.

The present scheme is a modification of that promulgated in 1947 and discussed very briefly in the last chapter. In aim and content there has been little change, but steps have been taken to associate education more closely with normal military training. This integration was evident in the pre-war Army, but after 1939, as a result of the Haining Report, the relationship between education, welfare and morale became more important than that between education and training. The influence of the university regional committees was in the same direction. It is not surprising, therefore, that the new Army has taken some time to rid itself of the feeling that education, valuable though it may be, is something apart from Service life and only to be attempted by the initiated. To re-establish education as one of the many aspects of military training has been the major task since the end of the war, and the success that has attended this effort will be clear from the detailed examination of the present scheme which completes this chapter.

The organisation of the Army is based on the unit, normally a lieutenant-colonel's command. This officer is responsible for all aspects of the training, education and welfare of his men, and although he may delegate certain specific duties to his subordinates and obtain the advice of specialist officers, he must remain the ultimate authority as far as his regiment or battalion is concerned. Both in form and organisation Army Education is based on this fundamental principle. Units differ as regards the types of men they contain and the role they have to play, and sufficient latitude is given in the handbook of syllabuses for education officers or instructors to adapt their schemes of lessons to suit the conditions peculiar to any Army unit. The aim is to relate English, mathematics and science to the normal military training and function of the corps or regiment, while the location of a unit has a direct bearing on the syllabuses in history and geography.

This method of integrating education with training is receiving particular attention at the present time, as is also the treatment of themes or projects which allow for the correlation of the separate subjects in a comprehensive whole. How successful this approach will be is difficult to ascertain. Teaching

of this nature requires great skill. To the veteran of the profession such methods as the interrelation of subjects and the use of local environment come naturally, but the Army to-day is a youthful service in which certain forms of experience are at a premium. The plea is therefore once again for time—time to enable the new Royal Army Educational Corps to settle down and develop. Given this time, and the benefit of the experience of the older members of the Corps, there is no reason why the Army's educational service should fail to evolve a satisfactory teaching approach in adult education.

A further sign that education is becoming more closely associated with military training is provided by the recent re-introduction of educational qualifications for promotion. During the inter-war years this requirement gave an undesirable rigidity to the curriculum and prevented the complete development of individual preferences. The new system envisages three examinations of the work normally undertaken at stages 'A,' 'B' and 'C' of general education. These syllabuses, which have formed the basis of Army Education for the past two years, are liberal in conception and comprehensive in construction—factors which in themselves ensure a wide choice being given in any test paper based on them. A general paper in the two lower stage examinations and a selection of optional subjects in the highest class give plenty of scope to the candidate with a special interest. It is hoped that these provisions will avoid the danger of the examination's determining the nature of the curriculum.

As in the other Services, the broad divisions of education in the Army are: education of the officer and soldier in the ordinary unit, education in the specialist colleges and training units, and education of children.

Education in the ordinary unit is what is generally understood to be "education in the Army." As already stated in Chapter 2, the system sets out first to provide education for the soldier as the essential foundation for military efficiency and the basis of good citizenship: this is called general education. Secondly, it looks upon the soldier as an individual and sets out to satisfy his varied needs in as comprehensive a manner as possible: this is called individual education.

General education has the elimination of illiteracy as its first objective ; soldiers identified as illiterate are sent to Preliminary Education Centres for a full-time course as soon as possible after entering the Army. The name "Preliminary" was deliberately chosen to avoid any possible stigma attaching to the students attending the centres.

Illiteracy has always been a problem in the Army, and has been resolutely dealt with for a very long time. There is always likely to be a small percentage of illiterates among the Army intake—men, for instance, who are constitutionally incapable of attaining even a modest degree of skill in reading and writing, or who have had their early schooling dislocated by illness or constant moves of home. The incidence of illiteracy at present would suggest that war-time conditions between 1939 and 1945—evacuation, bombing, call-up of teachers, etc.—affected education in some areas very considerably. The inevitable lowering of standards, the relaxation of discipline and parental control, and the general feeling of insecurity have all contributed to the illiteracy or semi-literacy found among some seventeen per cent of the Army intake at the present time. Until the young men affected by these conditions have passed through the Army, illiteracy will not decrease. This will not happen until at least 1958, by which time the men who were at school during the war years will have completed their training.

The Preliminary Education Centres at present deal with only the worst cases—about a hundred in each intake of five thousand. The courses of six weeks' specialised instruction and training are designed to assist in making the backward recruit a more efficient soldier and a happier man. Skilled teaching and a wisely exercised discipline are characteristics of the P.E.C.s. In these centres, also, is carried out much of the experimental work with the adult illiterate ; the results have already attracted the attention of the civilian educational world, which on the establishment of county colleges will have to meet a similar problem.

In its present form the typical Preliminary Education Centre is attached to a normal military unit for administrative purposes, although a great measure of autonomy is given to

the educational staff. Courses overlap, but the total student population is rarely more than sixty, and is divided into classes or groups of ten—a number small enough to make adequate individual tuition a reality.

Selection of candidates is the responsibility of the personnel selection staff of the Army, but the assessment of reading ability and standards in the other basic subjects is undertaken by the commandant of the P.E.C. The tests held at the end of each course indicate the progress of the student, and a report is issued for each soldier who has attended.

So far we have done little more than mention what may be termed the "mechanics" of a Preliminary Education Centre, but these in themselves scarcely provide a complete survey of the work in such an institution. Neither would a discussion of teaching methods convey the full scope of the training, for most students gain from the course something more than the ability to read, write and figure. It may be wise, therefore, to pay some attention to those aspects of P.E.C. work which do not lend themselves to accurate measurement.

Emotional instability appears to be particularly prevalent among men of low educational standard. A poor social background, a feeling of inferiority, and a sense of frustration are factors contributory to this instability, which in its turn is reflected in the nature and number of the jobs held by the very backward adolescents after leaving school. As recruits in the Army they tend, in the absence of proper guidance, to be irresponsible and sometimes delinquent. The Preliminary Education Courses give many of these men a second chance not only to attain a measure of literacy but also to gain self-confidence and pride in themselves. At the centres the students live in a carefully controlled environment. They are encouraged to practise any activity in which they excel, whether it be in athletics or hobbies. The curriculum, which gives the maximum time to reading, spelling and writing, also makes provision for arithmetic, history-geography—a joint subject—and handicrafts. A wide range of topics is treated under the heading of current affairs, and ample provision is made for physical education, games and foot-drill. Particular attention is paid to the general welfare of the men, and all of these aspects of the

training contribute to the main aim of developing the potentialities of every student to the greatest possible extent.

The Preliminary Education Courses are too short to be anything more than a step towards complete literacy. The reports which accompany every soldier who leaves the centres therefore contain adequate instructions as to further training in the basic skills. This follow-up education is the responsibility of the unit education staff, whose aim is to fit the man to take his place in the normal Stage 'A' classes.

The secondary objective of general education is the bringing of all soldiers to a standard of fundamental education satisfactory for good citizenship and military efficiency. The subjects of instruction are English, mathematics, history and geography, science and citizenship. It produces the well-informed soldier-citizen having a sufficient fundamental education, and helps to weld together the regular and national service elements of the Army.

The work is organised in three main stages 'A,' 'B' and 'C,' for each of which there is an appropriate examination, 3rd, 2nd and 1st Class Certificates respectively. The examinations are liberal in conception and run on modern lines; the syllabuses to which they refer have formed the main basis of Army education in the last two years. A general paper in the two lower-stage examinations, and a selection of optional subjects in the highest class, give plenty of scope to the candidate with a special interest.

General Education is compulsory and continuous in training or working hours, for national service men for a maximum of twelve months, for soldiers on a regular engagement for two years, or until the standard of the 2nd Class Certificate is reached. Exemption from general education is granted to those who gain a second class certificate or possess a higher qualification. Commanding officers plan the time-table to suit the conditions obtaining in their units, and complete uniformity cannot reasonably be expected in an Army which is stationed throughout the world. Although citizenship is included in this part of the scheme, it remains a permanent feature of military training and no exemptions are granted.

The question of compulsion is a thorny one, and civilian opinion has always been firmly against it as far as adult

education is concerned. This view has much to commend it if classes are contemplated outside normal working hours, but if education is to be an integral part of military training, it seems reasonable to suggest that the compulsion applying to drill and weapon training should also apply to educational subjects. On the part of the men resentment is unlikely to persist if the instructor arouses genuine interest, and it should be remembered that the regimental officer judges the importance of a project from the attitude his superiors adopt towards it. He is, in most cases, a professional soldier who wants to see all activities in the unit subscribing to the military efficiency of his men. For reasons of prestige alone education must be assured of the same attention as is given to other forms of training, and this condition would be difficult to obtain in the absence of compulsory attendance.

The original conception of current affairs has been modified for the peace-time Army. Until recently discussions were confined in the main to problems of a political, economic or international nature, and as such they covered very much the same ground as citizenship. The two terms were, in fact, almost synonymous. It is now proposed to broaden the scope of current affairs by encouraging regimental officers to select for consideration topics which may be classed as cultural and scientific in addition to those treated formerly—in fact, to include any topic which may be “current” at the time either nationally or in the context of the soldier’s environment.

So much, in brief, for general education.

The object of individual education is to provide educational facilities to satisfy the personal needs of the individual as nearly as possible analogous to those which would have been available had he or she remained a civilian. It is voluntary, carried out in the individual’s own time, and available at home or overseas from the time of entry into the Army. As we have seen in Chapter 2, under the National Service Act, the Army has a statutory obligation to provide further education, and it may, by arrangement, discharge this obligation through a local education authority.

The provision of these facilities starts in the unit which is the soldier’s home while he is serving. The aim is to provide in

every unit facilities for private study, a library, an information room, and a workshop or hobbies room. These facilities exist in most units now.

Usually a unit can also provide elementary instruction in some of the more common subjects from its own resources. For intermediate or advanced instruction reliance is placed in the first instance on civilian educational institutions. If a unit is within fair range of such an institution, an arrangement is made with the appropriate local education authority for the soldier to attend. Transport is provided and fees are paid for him. The Ministry of Education has circularised all local education authorities on this point and the response has been very gratifying; most local education authorities take such a broad view of their responsibilities that they are prepared to waive fees for serving personnel. A difficulty still to be overcome is the problem of adjusting the academic sessions of the civilian institution to the stay of the soldier in the unit, or *vice versa*. Adjustments are necessary here, and negotiations for special courses are proceeding between military districts and local education authorities.

There remains the very difficult case of the unit located abroad or in the traditional military areas at home, notably Salisbury Plain, Aldershot and Catterick, where civilian provision is difficult or impossible. To cover units in these areas the Army Council has provided four Army Colleges and over eighty education centres. These are all in existence, and are being redeployed and given new functions differing from those of resettlement with which they were concerned in the year or two immediately after the war. When this process is complete there will be in existence an army system of educational institutions which, it is hoped, will parallel that which exists in a normal civilian area, and with similar facilities and courses. There also remains the soldier who requires a course in an unusual subject, or is so located as to be quite unable to take advantage of the facilities in an Army College or education centre. For him there exists the War Office Correspondence Course Scheme, which provides over 500 courses and covers all reasonable requirements. These are widely used and there are 2,000 new enrolments every month.

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A direct concern of individual education is the resettlement in civilian life of the regular soldier. The duties of the War Office in this connection will be discussed in detail later ; at present it will suffice to point out that many of the courses provided for the individual have a direct bearing on the requirements of various trades and professions. They act in addition as introductions to the more specialised courses held under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, which alone can estimate the requirements of industry.

The part of the system we have just described under the headings of preliminary, general and individual education is designed to suit the needs of the majority of men and women in the Army. There are, in addition, several categories, such as hospital patients and enlisted boys, for whom special plans have been made.

Education in hospitals is conditioned to a great extent by the type of patient (each man is a unique problem), by the kind of hospital, and by the amount of accommodation available. The convalescent soldier requires, in the main, opportunities for the wise use of leisure, and the activities appropriate to those who are bedridden form a definite part of the rehabilitation programme, thus having a therapeutic value. To provide these facilities is the duty of a team consisting of the medical staff, the educational and physical training instructors, and voluntary helpers. The demand for them comes from two sources. In the case of the convalescent, the man himself is the best judge of what he wants, whether it be opportunities for serious study, general reading or handicrafts. Patients confined to bed are often advised by the doctor as to the form of education they should receive. In such cases it is essential that the Royal Army Educational Corps instructor should seek the doctor's guidance and arrange his work to contribute to the common aim of restoring sick men to health.

In recent years a great deal of attention has been paid to the mental condition of all hospital patients. It is generally recognised that although surgical and medical treatment are of primary importance, the patient's attitude to his complaint, the use he makes of his spare time, and his determination to recover are also powerful agents in making him fit to return to

normal employment. Thus, education in hospitals demands something more than the provision of facilities. It requires of the instructor qualities of tact and sympathy, good organising ability and industry. Most of his work with the patients takes place in the late afternoon and evening after the doctors have paid their visits. He has to be adaptable and able to improvise; his own initiative is a potent factor in stimulating the demand for education. To meet the requirements of the patients is only one side of his work; the other is to co-operate with the medical and auxiliary staffs. Most men in hospital find lectures, news commentaries and musical evenings enjoyable, and these are provided by both military and civilian visitors. The aspect of education which can be classed as specifically therapeutic is organised under medical supervision, and embraces a range of activities which may be classified as handicrafts. Certain of these, such as the strengthening of muscles or the acquisition of skill in the use of an artificial limb, have a direct medical purpose. The R.A.E.C. instructor can assist in this work, but it obviously remains the main responsibility of the qualified occupational therapist. Complementary to this work, however, is diversional craftwork, which rightly falls within the orbit of the education scheme. The aim here is not merely the construction of a model but the development of creative self-expression.

The accommodation available varies with the size and type of the hospital. In the smaller institutions the work has to be undertaken in the wards and at the bedside, where the presence of serious cases may make any form of communal education impossible. The larger hospitals and most convalescent depots usually allot one or two rooms to the ambulant patients for reading, writing or recreation; these can be used for education. This is not to suggest that accommodation of this type is essential. If it exists, the work of the instructor can be extended, but with the sick the individual approach is perhaps most valuable, and we find in the majority of military hospitals that the most successful instructor is the one who takes what he has to offer to the patient and does not rely on classes and classrooms.

The Army pays special attention to the library facilities for soldier-patients, and it owes a debt of gratitude to various

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civilian organisations which have assisted in providing books. Prominent among these are the British Red Cross Society and the Order of St. John. Reading for pleasure or for instruction is a favourite occupation in hospitals and the enforced leisure presents a unique opportunity for delving into books which at any other time would remain unread. The supply of books from military sources is extensive, and what cannot be obtained in this way can usually be found in those county and borough libraries which allow hospitals special terms of borrowing.

The Army has always been greatly concerned with the education of the boys who have enlisted as drummers, bandsmen or apprentices. These soldiers of the future are found in most permanent military stations in groups varying from a mere half-dozen to twenty or more. Their dispersion in this way creates a problem as far as education is concerned, for it is extremely difficult to deal with small scattered groups. The need for flexibility becomes more pronounced when it is realised that the boys represent a diversity of intelligence, experience, and social background. These conditions exist in any school, but schools are divided into classes with a fair degree of homogeneity. The Army's difficulty with boys is not the education of the apprentice attending a properly organised institution ; it is to ensure that a boy attached to a regiment is receiving sound instruction and training not only in educational subjects but also in life and correct behaviour.

It is with this latter type that we shall first deal, leaving an examination of the Apprentice schools until later in this chapter.

In the civilian world it is proposed that young people under eighteen years of age shall attend a County College for the equivalent of one day per week. In one area this scheme is already operative, and is providing useful lessons to all concerned with the education of the adolescent. The Army is also experimenting in this field, to which it is not a newcomer. In view of the recent movements in educational thought and provision it is important that the enlisted boy shall receive treatment similar to that of the youth who is not in uniform. It is the aim, therefore, to educate these boys in an environment which provides as far as possible the characteristics of a County College. Complete identity, especially in accommodation, is

impossible ; but environment embraces factors other than the physical, and the military authorities in planning for enlisted boys have been more concerned with the spirit which should pervade the instruction. Instructors, for instance, are chosen very carefully. They must not merely be teachers in the academic sense, whose influence is confined to the classroom, but leaders interested in young people and their development. Generally, commanding officers make a personal concern of the education of the boys attached to their units. They encourage the co-operation of all those engaged in training and welfare—the padre, the education instructor, and the Regimental Serjeant-Major.

Many of the boys are newcomers to their regiments, but some have an intimate connection with the unit they have joined through their fathers or even their grandfathers. Here is a splendid opportunity to foster an *esprit de corps* that can be sufficiently infectious to influence other newly joined recruits, and in later years when the boys become men can develop into that loyalty to the regiment which has been a characteristic of the British soldier for over two hundred years. With this in mind the War Office has included regimental history in the curriculum for enlisted boys, and instructors are encouraged to correlate history, geography, science and citizenship with this subject, relating the whole to the larger background of the Army and its development. Mathematics and English naturally play an important part in the education of these boys. The approach to the former is made through practical work involving situations which the boys will meet in their everyday lives ; this method makes it possible to relate mathematics to the other subjects of the curriculum. Self-expression is the key-note in the English periods, and while formal grammar teaching is avoided the boys receive by example rather than precept guidance in the right use of words and punctuation.

Individual education, which in the case of men is often synonymous with a definite course of serious study, becomes for the enlisted boy the opportunity for the pursuit of a hobby or some other interest. It is found that many boys have no definite preferences of this kind ; in such cases the instructor, by gaining his confidence, can often help the young student by suggestion.

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Education cannot ultimately be effective unless it stimulates interest, and regrettable though it may be, it is none the less true that many youths of fifteen or sixteen years of age are intolerant of anything which suggests a return to school. The Army is constantly facing this problem, and a great deal of the energy of its instructors is devoted to finding new methods which will arouse the boys' enthusiasm for educational activities.

Army apprentices are trained in schools which were first established twenty-five years ago. The centralised system as we know it to-day was started in 1923, and although the second world war interfered with the plans for expansion, it also proved that the Army apprentices schools were of vital concern as sources of technically trained men. Since the end of the war the military authorities have resumed their task of increasing the numbers and raising the standard of these institutions.

The object of these schools is to train boys as tradesmen for the Regular Army with a view to their becoming senior non-commissioned officers, warrant officers, and commissioned officers of the technical corps to which they are posted later in their service. It is realised that neither technical skill nor academic attainment is enough if this end is to be achieved. The man who is later to lead others must develop a sound sense of authority, and be able to inspire confidence and assess the capabilities of those who serve under him. The schools set out to foster these qualities through the agency of a carefully graded system of general, integrated with technical, education.

To be admitted, a boy must be over the compulsory school age and reach a minimum standard of physique. He must also show satisfactory attainments in mathematics, English and general knowledge. At the end of the training period of three years most of the apprentices find their way to the technical branches of the Army, but the final choice is based on a study of the boy's aptitudes as well as his own particular wishes. In order to enable the staff to make this assessment the apprentice chooses four trades, and for the first six months of his service the instructors study his progress in each, eventually selecting the one in which it is obvious he will succeed.

The general education curriculum is complementary to the trade training and contains English, mathematics, history,

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geography, scientific and engineering subjects. Boys who wish to prepare for the examinations of civilian institutions are given every encouragement and help to do so, both during school hours and in their own time. The possession of one of these qualifications not only contributes to a boy's success in the Army, but is also likely to be of use to him when, at the end of his engagement, he wishes to select some form of civilian employment.

It is the policy of the schools to provide a wide range of voluntary evening activities. It is not unusual to find foreign languages, literature, music, and many forms of handicrafts included under this arrangement. In addition, the boys are expected to take part in the games and athletics for which the schools have unrivalled facilities. Linked with this is the attention paid to the general health of the apprentices, a most important feature of which is the meticulous record that is kept of each boy's physical development.

The Army has set an extremely high standard of training for its technicians and tradesmen, a fact which has received the recognition of the engineering trades unions. This technical training, together with the sound general education given to the boys, is helping to produce the men who are vital not only to the Army but also to industry.

No account of the present state of education in the Army would be, in any sense, complete without reference to the work of Sir Philip Morris, now Vice-Chancellor of Bristol University. As Director of Education for Kent he became intensely interested in Army education, and was persuaded by Sir Ronald Adam in 1943 to become Director-General of Army Education, with the Directorates of Education and Army Bureau of Current Affairs under his control. Under his brilliant direction the education scheme for the release period was planned and executed. His vision and foresight laid down the lines of development for the future, and the Army education of the last five years has been a not unworthy monument to his genius. To his synthesis of the traditions and achievements of the past with the needs of the present and aspirations for the future the Army will always be indebted.

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At present educational policy is dictated by the Army Council, the Adjutant-General being the responsible member under the supreme authority of the Secretary of State for War. This policy is implemented by the Directorate of Army Education and by the Commanders-in-Chief of the Army commands at home and overseas. Each of these has his own educational adviser and staff officer. The Director of Army Education is also responsible for resettlement — a subject inseparably linked with education and discussed fully in the last chapter.

Owing to the spontaneous growth of educational activity in the Army during the war-time and release periods, the Directorate had become unwieldy and had assumed functions inappropriate to a Department of State. To remedy the situation and to decentralise such functions, an Institute of Army Education was set up in 1948 to carry out higher training and resettlement, and to administer correspondence courses, examinations, book supply and so on, under the direction of the War Office.

Since the end of the war, research into training methods for instructors and into teaching syllabuses and subject correlations has been undertaken by officers of the Directorate and Institute. At a time when the majority of instructors are new and untried such work is vital to the success of the education scheme. Experienced teachers can always develop fresh methods and novel applications of the subject matter they are using in a particular lesson, but the younger man requires guidance and demonstration. It is a notable indication of the cordial relations between the Army Directorate and the Ministry of Education that His Majesty's Inspectors have been ready to give every assistance to officers and instructors in their efforts to make education in the Army a real force and a factor which can contribute to the success of all forms of training.

Because of the emphasis which has necessarily to be placed upon fundamental work, the education scheme of the Army is an entity in itself; in this respect it differs from the Naval and R.A.F. educational provisions, which in spite of certain of their features appear mainly as an aspect of normal training. It is not the purpose of this book to plead a case for either form of organisation. The position to-day is a development and

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concomitant of the conditions peculiar to each Service, and is not the result of a predetermined policy which has no regard for realities. In the next chapter it is possible to see how closely the form of R.A.F. Education follows that of the Navy, and it is perhaps stimulating to have discussed in this chapter a scheme which is in so many respects a contrast.

CHAPTER 5

EDUCATION IN THE ROYAL AIR FORCE

THE ROYAL AIR FORCE is the youngest of the three Services. It was born out of the Royal Flying Corps during the first world war; the first educational element in it arose from the setting up of the Royal Air Force College at Cranwell in 1919, shortly after the termination of hostilities. The scheme and structure of education in the Service is not an artificial product. It is not unusual, when embarking upon a new project, to plan and organise it in a complete sense, and to create an approximation to a theoretically perfect structure. In the present era of reconstruction following the upheavals of the second world war, this kind of planning and organisation is indeed happening from time to time in various parts of the world and in one connection and another, but not as regards education in the Royal Air Force. Relatively young as the Service is, its educational structure has developed more or less steadily from small beginnings to the vigorous and comprehensive service of to-day.

Following the creation of a small staff of civilian education officers to assist in training of cadets at the College to become the permanent officers of the Service, a start was made in 1920 on the training of aircraft apprentices, who in their turn were to become the skilled technical tradesmen necessary for the maintenance and servicing of aircraft. Primarily, therefore, education was introduced rather in the utilitarian sense to serve the training needs of the Service. These needs have not only remained, but with the press of scientific progress in all directions have grown and intensified. Of necessity the Royal Air Force has had to recruit from civil life as highly intelligent a body of personnel as possible, and to incorporate in practically all its schemes of training the considerable body of scientific theory necessary to provide the essential background for the engineering and aeronautical practice so vital to an efficient air arm.

After the beginning of the steady extension in Service training courses, it was not long before a start was made with the provision of more general education facilities to meet the individual needs and requirements of Service personnel. Thus was born what has come to be known as the "General Education Scheme." Its benefits, as will be seen later, were rapidly extended as education officers gained experience of its working, and with the increasing appreciation by all officers and airmen of what it could offer. The General Education Scheme was and is to be found in operation at all stations and all units both at home and abroad.

As the "between wars" years passed, therefore, there came into being a steadily increasing body of education officers who collectively constituted what was known as the Royal Air Force Education Service. This, as has already been indicated, was a civilian organisation of university graduates, and it will be understood from the foregoing that the activities of its members fell into two well-defined divisions. One half was engaged in whole-time teaching duties at the various training schools and centres of the service; they worked in staff teams, each under a Senior Education Officer, their duties being to carry out the theoretical elements of instruction in the training schemes. The second half of the education service comprised individual educational officers, each working single-handed at an R.A.F. station, who were charged with the duty of administering the General Education Scheme, partly through the medium of administration and the day-to-day organisation of educational needs, and partly by giving actual instruction. The station education officers were naturally responsible to more senior officers at the higher formations at Group level, known as Group Education Officers; these in their turn were responsible to and administered by the senior education officers at Commands, whose duty it was to advise and assist Commanders-in-Chief on all matters relating to education. This still remains the broad picture as it exists to-day.

The war years from 1939-1945 have already been referred to in earlier chapters. But from the point of view of the Royal Air Force it is significant to note that although at the outbreak of war it was decided to suspend all activities relating to the

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General Education Scheme, and to confine educational instruction exclusively to the urgent requirements of war training, it was nevertheless not long before the press of circumstance and necessities of morale brought about an early reintroduction of general educational activity. Another circumstance following the experience of the war period should be mentioned. During the war years it was deemed essential for education officers to assume service ranks and to wear uniform. Apart from those among them who had been transferred to war duties outside the educational field, education officers were not actually mobilised, but to all outward appearances they formed part of the mobilised structure of the Royal Air Force. It had been the growing conviction of many during the pre-war period, when education officers were working in and with a military body, that there were disadvantages involved in doing this under civilian conditions, and as a logical outcome the Royal Air Force Education Service was formally converted on October 1st, 1946, into the Education Branch of the Royal Air Force, fully integrated into the Service as a combatant branch of professional officers.

There is no further need to dwell on the past. As has already been indicated, the post-war world of to-day is still struggling through a formative period of reconstruction in terms of a general revolution in outlook and in the sense of values of its citizens. Practically every element of public and private life is charged with its own special set of problems, separated from each other in one sense but necessarily interrelated in terms of a formula and an ideal of unity ; and in these respects the three Services are no exception. In one sense there is common ground between them. There is general recognition that those who man the Services, whether they do so for a short time as National Service entrants, or for a long period as regulars who are making their careers with the Services, all belong nevertheless to the nation and to the world, and are entitled to the opportunities and benefits of those educational facilities that are relevant to this relationship. In the Royal Air Force, however, perhaps even to a greater extent than in the other Services, there have been tremendous advances recently in the scientific field relating to the design, performance, protective armament, and offensive

weapons of Service aircraft. As a consequence the training needs of the Service for its own special functions and purposes have been greatly intensified, but have of course called for modification and adaptation appropriate to these changes.

From the point of view of education, therefore, it may be said that in the Royal Air Force there is a twofold aim. On the one hand there is the educational requirement for service training, and on the other there is the need to provide for the general educational wants of the individual. Obviously, since both these aspects remain educational, they are interrelated. Each must help the other, and to that extent they are mutually inclusive. Nevertheless they involve two separate approaches. Education for the Service, by its very nature, is an R.A.F. responsibility, and its training schemes must of necessity be imposed as a compulsory element in the preparation of an officer or airman for his subsequent Service career. Courses of instruction in the basic principles appropriate to the Service branch or trade concerned is therefore compulsory, and is given wholly in Service time. Such instruction on the educational side will almost always include some mathematics, English, mechanics and physics, with the addition of particular specialist subjects which naturally differ from branch to branch in the case of officers, and from trade to trade in the case of airmen (e.g., aero-engine theory, the strength and properties of materials, principles of flight, and so on). Education for the individual, on the other hand, is primarily the responsibility of the individual. The Service readily accepts the duty of provision, but it is for the individual to make what use of it he will. Such education is therefore mainly optional, and is undertaken largely in the airman's own time. The Service outlook in this respect is completely liberal, as commanding officers are authorised and indeed encouraged to provide Service time for individual instruction under the General Education Scheme whenever they are satisfied that the instruction in question is equally to the advantage of the Service and to that of the individual.

There is one exception to the optional character of this aspect of education in the Royal Air Force. It has already been indicated in Chapter 2 that with the establishment of the

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principle of national service, the R.A.F. equally with the other two Services has assumed a responsibility for the provision of "further education" in respect of "young persons," which otherwise has fallen to the local education authorities. It is to meet this responsibility that the Air Council has laid down the principle that two hours of Service time per week shall be set aside for compulsory instruction (one hour in general educational subjects and one hour in citizenship and current affairs) during the first year of service, and one hour per week only during the second year of service.

The training of personnel for the many aircrew categories and ground trades of the Air Force has entailed the setting up of a great number and variety of training schools. In the main, though not entirely, the schools in Flying Training Command are concerned with the training of aircrew, both officers and airmen, and those in Technical Training Command with the training of personnel for ground duties.

The educational element necessarily varies both in content and amount according to the purpose of the course, the type of training, and other factors. It will range from elementary studies for the lower trade groups to advanced instruction of university standard for some of the officer courses. In particular it will be appreciated that for those airmen of the regular Air Force who are of high mental calibre, it is important that they should be given the best possible training in fundamental principles, since they represent the high-level reserve from which in any large-scale expansion in an emergency the officers and senior non-commissioned officers would be drawn.

In some schools, such as those giving practical flying training, the educational element finds little place. On the other hand, in schools for the training of officers for the technical branch, and of airmen for the technical trades, the educational element assumes a considerable importance. The relationship between educational and technical instructional staffs at such schools has been very clearly defined in the following terms: "the former, with their educational competency, should be responsible in general for theoretical, mathematical, scientific and engineering instruction, and the latter, with their user knowledge, should be

concerned with the practical and applied aspects of training." This is a formula of unity which works admirably in practice.

Humanistic subjects are included in most of the training courses of the Service for a number of reasons. They provide background relief and give variety to the main technical elements of the courses, they help to develop varied interests outside the utilitarian sphere, they help to encourage and train adult thinking, and with it the ability to interpret experience, and generally they encourage and satisfy the moral and intellectual aspirations latent in all thinking human beings. In the courses that are addressed to the potential leaders of the Service, as at the R.A.F. College at Cranwell, and at the Officer Cadet Training Units, this broader element in the instructional programme is extended to training in capacity for leadership through a broad study of contemporary problems and events. All concerned are taught to express themselves lucidly in speech and writing, and are given practice in the exercise of initiative and judgment in appropriate group activities, and in the creative use of leisure.

It is now appropriate to turn more specifically to the main aspects of the various training schemes. For the permanent officer of what is called the General Duties (or Flying) branch these training schemes really begin with his cadet course at the R.A.F. College at Cranwell in Lincolnshire. The cadet enters Cranwell through the medium of the Combined Entrance Examination conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners on behalf of the three Services, and for a period of between two-and-a-half and three years he is taught to fly and to understand his aircraft completely, and trained in all aspects of his duties as an officer. To this end there is provided a considerable body of theoretical instruction in mathematics, physics, principles of flight, the theory of the internal combustion engine, the strength and structure of materials, and other related technical subjects. As indicated above, there is also a course in the humanities—English, history and geography, and current affairs—all studied from the specialist angle of the future officer of the Royal Air Force. Each cadet is also encouraged to study a language. The standard reached is approximate to that achieved at the end of the second year at a university. The

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course at Cranwell is in fact a fully balanced and integrated scheme of practical and theoretical instruction which, allied to the general build-up and development of character through the medium of games and other corporate and individual activities, is designed to produce that high spirit of service and duty which has come to be regarded as synonymous with the Royal Air Force. It should be added that at Digby, close by Cranwell, there is what is known as the Secretarial Wing of the R.A.F. College, devoted to the training of officers of the secretarial branch of the Service. Educationally cadets of this branch take the same course in the humanities as do those of the General Duties branch, but their specialist subjects are those appropriate to their professional duties.

Officers of the technical branch of the Royal Air Force are differently recruited, and are therefore also differently trained. Some are drawn direct from the universities as graduates with appropriate degrees in science or engineering, in respect of whom a preliminary Service training will have been provided through the medium of the university air squadrons which are associated with most of the universities of the United Kingdom. Others are drawn from the more senior and experienced Group A tradesmen of N.C.O. rank. In all cases those concerned first attend an O.C.T.U. (Officer Cadets Training Unit) for a short general course of officer training, and then pass, according to which of the three sections of the technical branch—engineering, armament or signals—they elected to serve in, to one or other of three training centres for an appropriate Junior Officers' Specialist Course. A Senior Specialist Course is taken later after an interval of a few years' service and experience as a junior technical officer. At all these courses there are, needless to say, Education Officers responsible for the theoretical aspects of the instruction.

It is hoped before long to co-ordinate the three technical centres above referred to, at present dispersed, into a combined R.A.F. Technical College.

Passing from the training of officers to that of airmen personnel, it should be noted that the Royal Air Force shares with the other Services in the provision of schemes of recruitment for the youth of the country. There are two such schemes

in the Royal Air Force. One is known as the Apprentice Training Scheme, and the other is the Boy Entrant Scheme. The Apprentice Training Scheme is perhaps the better known. Indeed in many respects it has earned considerable distinction in the country. There must be very few secondary schools indeed which have not at one time or another provided a quota of boys for this scheme. The Aircraft Apprentice Scheme of training was begun in 1920 through the inspiration of Marshal of the Royal Air Force the Viscount Trenchard, then Chief of the Air Staff. Its most notable home has been the School of Technical Training at Halton in Buckinghamshire, where apprentices of the engineering trades are trained, but it should be known that apprentices of the signals trades are trained at Cranwell, and administrative apprentices (clerks and equipment assistants) at St. Athan, in South Wales. On the 25th May, 1945, Lord Trenchard attended at Halton as the inspecting officer on the occasion of the "passing-out" parade of the 46th Entry. This was the jubilee celebration of 25 years of aircraft apprentice training in the Royal Air Force. Halton's record during this period has been inspiring and distinguished. Up to May 1945 no less than 18,499 apprentices had passed into the Service as skilled tradesmen, 4,143 ex-apprentices had been granted commissions, and a stirring record of honours had been earned, including one Victoria Cross, one George Cross, two appointments as Commander of the Order of the British Empire, 174 Distinguished Flying Crosses, 83 Air Force Crosses and 249 Distinguished Flying Medals. The country owes much to this scheme of training in the Royal Air Force, a scheme which has not only reflected on the technical side the high standards of skill associated with the ex-apprentice airman concerned, but has also made the phrase "the Halton Spirit" very well known. It may fairly be claimed that the Education Branch has contributed in very large measure to this success. Aircraft apprentices enter for three years' training, either at Halton for the engineering trades or at Cranwell for the signal trades, under conditions comparable with those at a public school. Here they undergo a thorough grounding in theoretical principles and their practical application. For this purpose a considerable staff of education and technical officers

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is provided. The time given to educational instruction (in mathematics, physics, mechanics, and the appropriate theoretical subjects especial to the particular trade selected, together with a liberal course in the humanities) amounts to approximately 10 to 12 hours per week over the whole three years. Aircraft apprentices have the opportunity of qualifying for the National Certificate in Engineering during this time, and for those who do this further opportunities will, it is hoped, be available to proceed in later years to the Higher National Certificate.

The Boy Entrant Scheme is designed on a somewhat lower plane. Entrance to the aircraft apprentice scheme is firstly by nomination, followed by a qualifying educational examination, and then by a series of appropriate intelligence, aptitude and medical tests. As the Boy Entrant training scheme involves a course of instruction of eighteen months as against the three years of the Apprentice Scheme, the qualifying examination is dispensed with. Successful Boy Entrants are trained in one or another of a variety of trades which, because they involve a lesser standard of skill and knowledge, do not contain the same amount of educational training. The scheme nevertheless has very wide appeal, and for boys who leave school less well equipped educationally offers an excellent alternative to the Apprentice Training Scheme described above.

After enumerating the training schemes for apprentices and boy entrants it is convenient to summarise the scheme for training airmen, numerically the largest element in the R.A.F. Nowadays airmen recruits may either be volunteers who seek a career in the regular Service, or entrants under the National Service Act. Volunteers for regular service are carefully selected and only those who reach a specific standard are accepted. Selection for training in a particular trade is in accordance with a carefully planned procedure, which takes into account both the personal inclination of the recruit and the needs of the Service. It will be appreciated, however, that where all entrants, whether regulars or National Service, are subjected to similar batteries of intelligence, aptitude and other tests, the allocations to trades in the case of National Service entrants is naturally confined to those which do not involve long courses

of training. The problem of the National Service entrant is indeed difficult. The importance of developing a policy of continuity between his pre-Royal-Air-Force trade training, if any, and his intentions as to his future career when he leaves the Service is fully realised. Every endeavour is in fact, made to take this fully into account when allocating the National Service recruit to his trade. This matter of allocation is not easy. Primarily the needs of the Service must prevail, and of necessity the period of his useful availability is so limited that except in the case of the entrant whose civilian trade training is sufficiently advanced an allocation must be made to a trade the training for which will leave a reasonable balance of time for useful operational service.

Broadly, trades in the R.A.F. are graded in three categories or groups, the A group of trades involving the highest degree of skill and technical knowledge, with lesser standards in the lower groups. Most of the technical trades are of course in Groups A and B.

All entrants naturally begin with a course of recruit training, at present of two months' duration, at one or other of some six training schools. Educationally the course is planned to include elementary calculation and English and a broad appreciation of current affairs. Exceptionally, those specially qualified may pass straight to a course of training for a Group A trade, but more generally the airman, especially in the engineering groups, will go to a school of technical training or to one of the radio schools for what is known as a trade mustering course for his Group B trade. Here the Education Branch contributes instruction in mathematics, general physics, mechanics, and, where appropriate, workshop drawing and electrical theory. Subsequently—and this will naturally apply more especially to the regular airman—he is encouraged to re-muster to the Group A trade corresponding to his Group B trade. Thus an instrument repairer may be accepted for a conversion course to the trade of instrument maker, a flight mechanic to that of a fitter, and so on.

Enough has been said in the foregoing to give an outline sketch of the general ramifications of education in the training of the officer, airman, apprentice and boy entrant. The following

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considerations show what the Service offers to the airman as an individual under what has already been referred to as the General Education Scheme. This scheme has been devised as the broad means for providing anything and everything educational, apart from the training schemes, that may be required by any member of the Royal Air Force, whatever his rank and whatever his trade. The charter from the outset has been broad and generous. In King's Regulations and Air Council Instructions as far back as the 1920's the aim has been expressed as including "education in a wider sense intending to raise the level of general intelligence and to develop those qualities of mind and character which go to form an efficient disciplined Force under modern conditions." When the whole matter of both aims and provision for education in the Royal Air Force was brought under review with the changed outlook of the post-war world, it was found unnecessary to deviate from the above statement of aim in any respect whatsoever. This fact stands as testimony to the wisdom and vision of those who helped to plan the scheme in the pioneer days.

To give a more detailed enumeration of the scope and intentions of the General Education Scheme, it is only necessary to quote from the official Air Ministry Order of December 23rd, 1946. This reads as follows :

- "3. The General Education Scheme will cover the following :
 - (a) Assistance to officers, airmen and airwomen in the study of subjects of an educational character bearing on Service requirements, including general and technical education related to air force branches and trades and, where appropriate to the scheme, preparation for service examinations.
 - (b) Education in a wider sense, aimed at raising the level of general intelligence and developing those qualities of mind and character which go to form an efficient disciplined force under modern conditions, including, *inter alia*, practice in self-expression with a view to clear thinking and accurate statement; general reading and study for self-development, and the study of modern world problems.
 - (c) Assistance to officers, airmen and airwomen who wish to prepare for business or professional careers or industrial occupations in civil life, including the provision of information, guidance and advice on such careers and employment.

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- (d) The study of current affairs and citizenship.
- (e) The provision of facilities for practical activities such as handicrafts and hobbies of educational value and for the cultivation of music, art, drama and other cultural subjects.
- (f) The provision of library facilities.
- (g) The oversight of the arrangements for the education of the children of Service personnel."

To carry out this very generous charter, we have mentioned that at least one station education officer is to be found at every unit of the Royal Air Force both at home and overseas. Actually the provision of education officers for this scheme will in future be on an even more generous plan, in proportion to the station's strength, at the approximate scale of one education officer per 450 airmen and airwomen. Each of these graduate officers, following commissioning and appointment, will have undergone a preparatory course of training in the many-sided problems and duties of a station education officer at what is called the R.A.F. School of Education, located at Wellesbourne Mountford in Warwickshire. When he (or she, since, where appropriate, education officers of the Women's Royal Air Force are now also being recruited) reports to his commanding officer for duty, he will find available to him on his station the appropriate requisites for his task. It is intended that when the scheme has developed fully, what may collectively be described as the station education centre will include education offices for himself and a clerk, an education library, perhaps a recreational library (since recently the responsibility for recreational libraries in the Royal Air Force has passed to the education officer), a quiet room for private study, a station information room for the provision of both pictorial displays and appropriate literature on current affairs in international, national, local and station matters of interest, a number of classrooms appropriate to the demands of the station for formal class instruction, a comfortably furnished room for informal discussion-group gatherings, and suitable workroom accommodation for handicraft practices of various kinds. Ideally, one would like to see all the above housed in one block. This will rarely be found to be the case. It represents the ideal. After the second world war the Royal Air Force shares with the rest

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of the nation an urgent need for more suitable accommodation ; consequently the educational housing referred to above is often scattered. Generally speaking, however, it may be claimed that to a greater or lesser degree provision is made on the lines indicated above ; and in terms of that provision the senior station education officer and his colleagues are charged with the duty of carrying out the General Education Scheme as laid down in the above-quoted Air Ministry Order.

So far as the personnel are concerned, each person is invited to discuss his or her special needs with the station education officer, preferably as soon after arrival on the station as possible. Where, as so often happens, these needs fall into a pattern common to others, classes are arranged, either on the station or at an external technical or other institution. Where the need is purely individual, it is met by guided study, possibly by correspondence courses or by attendance at an external institution. The need may be related to the individual's ambition within the Service or to his plans for return to civil life. It may be strictly utilitarian, or strictly cultural, or it may be both. It may lie in the direction of formal study, or find expression in such organised cultural activities as a music circle, a discussion group, an art group, a handicrafts class, or a drama society. The General Education Scheme caters for all of them, and it is because of these varied and many-sided activities that provision has been made as enumerated above for the various types of rooms.

Special reference must be made to one element in the General Education Scheme. This is the provision of what is called the R.A.F. Education Certificate. Its purpose is to provide a tangible incentive to study, and in this respect it has a twofold application. On the one hand it sets a specific objective for the earlier stages of education. It is addressed to a definite syllabus on a prescribed range of subjects, culminating in an examination (held twice yearly) and, for those who succeed in reaching the appropriate standard, in the award of a certificate. On the other hand it constitutes a prescribed avenue to advancement and promotion within the Service. The examination is in two parts. Part I is in English, elementary mathematics, and general knowledge, and Part II requires a minimum of three

subjects selected from additional mathematics, practical geometry and workshop drawing, general or engineering or household science, social studies, modern history, geography, and elementary French or German.

It is an accepted principle in the R.A.F. that as a preliminary condition for advancement all airmen and airwomen shall have reached a suitable standard of educational competence. What were known broadly before the second world war as promotion examinations were accordingly prescribed for all who aimed at reclassification to "leading aircraftman," and for all corporals who aimed at promotion to the rank of sergeant. These examinations were naturally suspended during the war years, but a return to the principle has now been decided. In future the passing of Part I of the R.A.F. Education Test is to be a prerequisite for reclassification to leading-aircraftman (or aircraftwoman), and the passing of Part II for promotion to the rank of corporal.

Such, in broad outline, is the framework of the educational plan in the R.A.F. of to-day. It follows closely the pattern foreshadowed for it by the present Director of Educational Services when, shortly after the conclusion of the Armistice in late 1945, he presented his proposals for the future to the Member of the Air Council to whom he was responsible ; he concluded with these words :

"The object is practical in the sense that such a basis is indispensable to a first-class and efficient Air Force ; idealistic in the sense that all fighting services, as part of the body politic, are made for men. What happens when the theory is applied that man exists for the State has been painfully obvious in recent years. To attract men of the best quality from all classes of the people in future the fighting services must provide a life and mental environment in keeping with the highest standards of the national community. There is no finer task than that which the Educational Service must perform in breaking down internal and external barriers of ignorance and prejudice, and in balancing professional skill with broader notions of citizenship. In these respects it is the aim to place the R.A.F. Educational Service high in the esteem of its parent organisation and in the forefront of educational progress."

CHAPTER 6

INTER-SERVICE CO-OPERATION AND THE FUTURE

BRITISH SERVICE EDUCATION is marked by the cordial relationship which exists between the education branches of the three Services at all levels and the development of inter-Service co-operation fostered by the Ministry of Defence is one of the many encouraging signs for the future.

It will have been noticed that all three Services possess education branches which vary in role and composition, each operating under characteristic conditions which influence the educational policies of the Admiralty, War Office and Air Ministry respectively. There are certain main points of difference and similarity which are important.

The Navy is organised and administered mainly on a geographical basis, and all units must be self-contained. Its personnel generally are of comparatively high mental standard, and are required to undertake highly specialised duties. In peace-time they are mainly long service men and the national service element is small ; there are no illiterates and there is a great deal of training ashore, mostly of a technical nature.

The Army—numerically the largest of the three Services—is also organised and administered mainly on a geographical basis at home and abroad. It is composed of technical and non-technical personnel, both regular and national service. Ultimately the regular and national service components will be equal in number, but at present the latter is the larger. Units are generally administratively self-contained—their variety in size and function is considerable and they are subject to constant movement and wide dispersion. The Army contains a large number of men of low educational standards ; particularly in non-technical arms, mental standards and attainments tend to be lower than those in the Navy and Air Force.

The R.A.F. is organised and administered on a functional basis at home and on a geographical basis overseas. In peace-time it is normally composed predominantly of officers and other ranks serving on regular engagements. They are for the most part technical or trade specialists of a relatively high mental standard. The majority complete their regular service and return to civil life before, or soon after, reaching the age of thirty ; the vocational element has a prominent place in their educational requirements. The exigencies of the post-war situation with regard to personnel has compelled the employment of a large number of national service men, not to the same extent as in the Army, although to a greater extent than in the Navy. The frequent movement of individuals from unit to unit and from home to overseas is a factor which affects the provision of unit and formation education in the R.A.F., but does not affect education in the training establishments.

This background of essential similarity with wide individual variation affects the problem of inter-Service co-operation. There are many common problems, some of which will be discussed later ; there have been informal, but none the less effective, contacts and collaboration since very early days. The Central Advisory Council, which has already been mentioned, acted to some extent as an inter-Service co-ordinating body ; the three Services were represented on it by observer members.

The first deliberate organised co-operative effort, the formation in April 1944 of the Inter-Service Committee on Educational and Vocational Training for the immediate post-war period, was brought about by Sir Ronald Adam as Adjutant-General. Previously the Lord President's Committee had set up two inter-departmental committees. Of these, the McCorquodale Committee dealt with reconstruction employment and vocational training for personnel released from war service, and the Hankey Committee with post-war training for professions and occupations other than manual trades. The new inter-Service committee, commonly known as the E.V.T. Committee, was to work in conjunction with those just mentioned, but within the Services. The three Services were represented on it, together with the Ministry of Education, the

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Ministry of Labour and National Service, and the Scottish Education Department. The terms of reference were:

- (a) to make proposals, and, where appropriate, to arrange for action to be taken upon points submitted to them by the McCrorquodale and Hankey Committees respectively;
- (b) to take into consideration the requirements of the educational and vocational education schemes in the three Services, and to make proposals, or where appropriate to take the necessary action, to avoid unnecessary duplication of work; and
- (c) to make proposals for the sharing of resources both at home and overseas.

The main work of this committee, which lasted from April 1944 until December 1945, was intrinsically important and the undoubtedly success of the three release period schemes justified its creation. There were, however, several important by-products of the committee's activities. One of these was the Inter-Service Advisory Panel on the Forces Educational Broadcasts which was instituted in conjunction with the British Broadcasting Corporation to co-ordinate arrangements for educational broadcasting to the Forces and to develop the work within and without the Services. Another was the Subject Committee on the Forces Preliminary Examination which, as its name indicates, acted with the Civil Service Commission in directing the development and recognition of this Examination. Other sub-committees were those to keep under review women's education in the Services and the content of material used as the basis of current affairs discussions.

In June 1948 the Ministry of Defence, in the natural development of its functions, set up an Educational Service Co-ordinating Committee. This committee, on which both the official and educational sides of the three Services departments are represented, now deals with all policy matters on education which are not exclusively the concern of an individual department. In February 1946, on the abolition of the E.V.T. Committee, the three Service Directors of Education continued to meet together regularly for the interchange of views on educational problems. This committee has since become a sub-committee of the main committee of the Ministry of Defence mentioned above, and continues to deal executively with

matters of a routine nature or those remitted to it by the main committee.

The system for formal co-operation described above is working extremely well and has already resulted in closer co-operation in the many fields which offer themselves, and which will be described briefly later in this chapter. Its success is largely due to the tact, wisdom and skilful chairmanship of Mr. A. J. Newling. As might be expected, the work of the Co-ordinating Committee has so far been largely exploratory, but sufficient has emerged from its deliberations to make it certain that the main common problems of the future will receive proper consideration at a high level. The work of the main co-ordinating committee is now carried a stage further by the setting up of similar bodies in the more important overseas areas where the three Services are found together.

Two very important examples of inter-Service co-operation are the plans made for the resettlement in civilian life of the regular member of the Forces, and the arrangements accepted in connection with the education of Service children.

The ultimate aim of resettlement is to ensure that all regular officers and men obtain, at the termination of their engagements, employment in keeping with their experience, qualifications and general ability. The problem is more acute in the case of the officer because his duties to-day are more complex and onerous than they were in the past. The shortage of mature N.C.O.s allows for only a limited delegation of authority, and there must needs be a greater sense of urgency in the training of recruits whose term of service is only eighteen months. These facts often prevent the officer from making adequate preparation for a professional qualification during the time he is on the active list, and outside the professions the number of posts suitable for the ex-officer is small. The age at which they are discharged is a factor which affects the future employment of both the commissioned and non-commissioned ranks. It is understandable that some employers hesitate to engage men who have spent as much as fifteen or twenty years in the Armed Forces and whose contact with industry and business is necessarily slight, but there are welcome signs of a greater readiness on the part of a few of the

larger undertakings to offer employment to the ex-serviceman. Retirement ages in the Services are low compared with those of civilian life. The officer aged forty-five or the N.C.O. of forty has by no means reached the end of his working days. They have experience and qualities which can make a contribution to the labour force of the country, and at a time when manpower difficulties are severe it would seem almost contrary to the well-being of our national economy to fail to utilise them. There is also little doubt that the success of any recruiting campaign is intimately connected with the establishment of a satisfactory resettlement service, for men will be more inclined to join the Services if they can be assured of an alternative career when their engagement terminates. Optimism based on specious promises is not sufficient. This problem is not a new one, of course. Before 1939 and during the release period the Defence Ministries and the Ministry of Labour co-operated in evolving schemes to assist the ex-serviceman, but their plans were not universally successful, nor were they popular with the Trades Unions. The position is now much better owing to the exertions of the Interdepartmental Committee under the chairmanship of Sir Harold Wiles. The terms of reference of this Committee were :

“ To examine the problems arising on the resettlement in employment of officers and men coming out of the Forces and to make recommendations.”

It did not set out to solve the problems inherent in a mass demobilisation following a major war, for the peak period of releases had already occurred before the committee had completed its preliminary investigations. Sir Harold Wiles did, however, direct the attention of his colleagues to the regular forces and based his recommendations on the fairly accurate estimates of annual discharges which the Defence Ministries were able to provide.

The Report was made available to the public in October 1948 and contained the following recommendations :

“ There should be a vocational scheme on the industrial level for ex-regular officers or men leaving the Forces, with maintenance provided during training.

- “ There should be a scheme for assisting professional and university education of young officers and men leaving the Forces after short service with maintenance.
- “ There should be a business training scheme primarily for officers retiring over the age of forty-two, with maintenance at a level appropriate to their age and status.
- “ The Ministry of Labour should be responsible for administering these schemes.
- “ The Inter-Service Committee set up to gain trade union recognition of Service Trades should continue in being until its task was completed.
- “ That women leaving the regular Forces should be equally eligible to participate in resettlement training schemes.”

This report was welcomed by the three Services as a major contribution to the solution of the problem of ensuring a satisfactory future for the discharged officer and man, and since the autumn of 1948 the efforts of the interested parties have been directed to the establishment of the various schemes. The Ministry of Labour has been as generous as possible in allotting places to ex-servicemen for vocational training, and posts in the Executive, Clerical and Industrial grades of the Civil Service are reserved for ex-members of the Forces. Specially recommended officers are also permitted to compete in the open examinations of the Administrative grade. The British Broadcasting Corporation and the nationalised industries have also been approached, and the former body now gives preference to ex-servicemen in filling certain vacancies occurring in the unskilled occupations.

Most encouraging of all has been the response of the Trades Unions. Very conscious of the evils which could accrue as a consequence of any relaxation of the terms of entry into any one of the unions, they have, nevertheless, found it possible to recognise a very large number of Service trades, and the acceptance of many more is under consideration.

The Defence Ministries on their side have collaborated, not merely as members of interdepartmental bodies, but singly through their own branches. Since the beginning of 1948 the Director of Army Education has controlled the resettlement arrangements made for soldiers. He is now responsible for the

collection and dissemination of information on all matters affecting the selection of suitable employment and the availability of it in various parts of the United Kingdom. General resettlement questions on emigration or industrial developments, for instance, are matters on which the Army now receives information. The Army education authorities also consult the Ministry of Labour and other Ministries in connection with those Acts of Parliament affecting the welfare of the soldier on his return to civilian employment.

The assumption of these duties by the Director of Army Education was a wise decision, for it means that one branch of the Staff is now responsible both for the planning of a soldier's general education and for guiding him in the selection of a future career. There is an obvious link between individual education and resettlement in civilian life, and it is intended that regular soldiers should be encouraged to plan their studies in a way which will enhance their prospects after discharge. The Army Resettlement and Advice Service is one of the most important commitments of the Royal Army Educational Corps at home and abroad. Its task is to advise all ranks of the facilities offered by the Ministry of Labour. This is accomplished by means of regular interviews with soldiers approaching the end of their colour service. Through their close liaison with officials of the Ministry, R.A.E.C. officers are able to investigate the prospects of a soldier's obtaining satisfactory employment in a particular trade or occupation, and in cases of special difficulty they can arrange for the man to be interviewed by an expert at the Ministry's Regional offices. Abroad, the Resettlement and Advice Service functions as far as possible in the same way, but inquiries demanding the attention of the Ministry of Labour are passed to the Director of Army Education, and the appropriate R.A.E.C. officers in the areas where employment or courses are desired treat them in accordance with the regulations applicable to the United Kingdom.

This service is still in its infancy, as is the entire resettlement scheme for all the Forces; but there are signs that it will not only remain a permanent feature of Army education, but will also become increasingly important as the regular Army grows to its full size.

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The Education Branches of both the Navy and Air Force have assumed responsibilities similar to those of the Director of Army Education. The facilities offered by the Ministry of Labour apply equally to all members of the Services, all of whom can obtain advice from their respective education officers. In resettlement, as in many other aspects of Service work, there is constant co-operation and co-ordination between the Admiralty, War Office and Air Ministry, some examples of which we find in the issue of a joint Resettlement Bulletin and the common use of lecturers and education centres in overseas theatres.

The problem of the education of Service children resolves itself into two parts—their education overseas, and their transfer to a suitable school at home on the return of the parents from a foreign station. As previously stated, the Local Education Authorities have now taken over garrison schools at home and, in any case, the majority of Service children in this country usually attended normal civilian schools even before the 1944 Education Act. This arrangement does not seriously concern the Navy, and the Army is reasonably satisfied because naval and military stations are in, or near, urban centres of population where the number and variety of schools is sufficient to ensure an adequate education for the children. It is in the Royal Air Force that some anxiety is felt.

Airfields are generally located in rural areas some distance from the towns, and unless the families of airmen are accommodated in quarters on the stations they have to live in neighbouring villages within travelling distance. These families tend to become communities within a community, owing to their different background and interests. Air Force personnel are predominantly townsmen ; rightly or wrongly, the parents are apt to consider the facilities offered by a small village rather limited, not least in the matter of education. They contend that the type of school to which they wish to send their children is, more often than not, a fair distance away and public transport is inadequate. There is undoubtedly some substance in these contentions ; the subject is being closely studied by the Ministry of Education, the three Services and the Ministry of Defence. There is no simple solution.

Overseas, children of Service personnel attend one or other of the Service schools in which the teachers are either Queen's Army Schoolmistresses, teachers seconded from Local Education Authorities in the United Kingdom, or teachers engaged locally. The work done in these schools is intimately connected with the situation at home, for there are always pupils who return to the British Isles after they have reached the age of eleven years, and it then becomes necessary to place them in some form of secondary school. The new methods of selection for this form of education are based no longer on a written scholarship examination but on a series of tests and teachers' ratings. To ensure that children in this category receive full consideration, the Service Authorities provide the Local Authorities with all relevant details of the abilities of pupils who have attended a school overseas and are about to return to the United Kingdom.

The whole subject of the education of Services children overseas has been fully explored by an inter-departmental committee on which were represented all interested Departments of State, including the Treasury. Its report has been approved, and its general effect will be to bring the educational facilities for these children into line with those envisaged for children in the United Kingdom under the Education Act, 1944. There is no reason why development of these facilities should not parallel similar developments at home.

The relatively small number of the children of secondary school age in any one area makes it difficult to provide efficient secondary education except by extravagant staffing arrangements, which the Services cannot afford even if they could obtain the teachers. A possible solution is to bring into the scheme the children of other United Kingdom nationals to swell the numbers. This suggestion has other merits which are obvious.

Resettlement and the education of Service children are two good examples of inter-Service co-operation in the educational field. There are many others, but space permits only passing reference to a few of them.

The facilities for "individual" or "further" education at Services centres at home and abroad are made available,

where practicable, to personnel of all three Services. This provision, on a joint basis, offers a useful field of development for the future. The excellent Forces Correspondence Course Scheme located at the Institute of Army Education, Eltham Palace, is already staffed and controlled on an inter-Service basis, and offers unlimited scope for expansion both on the academic and vocational side, and on the purely military side. Inter-Service co-operation with the British Broadcasting Corporation continues to be cordial, and further advances may confidently be expected in the Forces Educational Broadcasts, which have won such high praise in pioneering the difficult terrain of adult education.

The future of education in the Services will depend upon many factors, among which are organisation, weapon development, progress in civilian education, and—not least—finance. It is certain that there will be some contraction as financial retrenchment becomes necessary, but it seems equally certain that education is now well on its way to finding its proper place in Service life. Much will depend upon the creation of satisfactory prospects of careers for the education staffs, in order that the right type of man may continue to be attracted to the Services for this work.

As to the form it will take, there can be little doubt that existing policies are on sound lines. The Services will continue to provide such instruction as is necessary to make the Service man efficient. If he is illiterate he must learn to read and write. Some twenty-five per cent of the national service intake are semi-literate ; they read and write with difficulty and reluctance. Among the remainder are to be found all degrees of proficiency, from semi-literacy to full mastery of language. Military efficiency does not require literary elegance, but it does require that the man should be able to read, comprehend instructions, and write an intelligible message as simply and readily as he carries out his technical role, whatever that may be. One of the objects of the general education provided by the Services must always be to achieve and

maintain this standard. A similar level of competence is required in arithmetic, and the man should have at least such knowledge of history and geography as will give life and meaning to the traditions of his service. Some knowledge of the fundamentals of science are clearly required in armed forces designed to defend a modern industrial civilisation and one of the major tasks will be to continue to provide the fundamental knowledge required for the Service technical training.

An attempt to restrict Service education too rigidly to purely military needs would defeat its own ends, just as in civil life a purely vocational education, designed to produce appropriate numbers of clerks, artisans, labourers and others, would fail even in this limited objective. This happens because men are not only clerks, shopkeepers, soldiers, sailors, airmen, or whatever it may be, but individual human beings as well. A human being who lacks a lively interest in the world around him is stunted in development and uncertain of himself, and this uncertainty damages his efficiency in his work. This consideration applies particularly to the service man. He is often separated from his home, and may find the consequent need to write letters either an additional burden or an opportunity to give pleasure to himself or his family. He is sent abroad and may either feel cut off from familiar sights or seize the opportunity to absorb new experiences. His life will be either a series of deprivations or a series of opportunities, in so far as he has or has not a lively and receptive mind. In either event, his attitude will profoundly affect his morale and efficiency.

It should be noticed that the quality that matters in this context is not intelligence—a natural gift, not to be altered by education—but alertness and curiosity, which can be stimulated by a good teacher even in those whose talents are limited, and even by means of a modest curriculum. Where it is given in the Services compulsory general education seeks neither to produce scholars rather than military men, nor to pump in large quantities of knowledge; a modest quantity of certain basic subjects is used as an instrument for developing someone who will be at the same time an alive human being and an efficient soldier,

sailor, or airman. It might be thought that the civilian educational system could do this before ever the soldier enters the Army. In fact it does not, and considerable advance in education will have to occur if even this modest level is to be universally attained. Further, lessons learnt at school are, for most people, not riveted in the mind until their relation to real life is perceived : hence the need, in all walks of life, for continuance of education in adult life. For the reasons given above, this need is particularly pressing in the Services.

From some men, who are suitable for advancement, the Services will require a higher standard than that so far described. There will also be some whose capacities and attainments are distinctly above the average. It is to the Services' direct interest to provide the former group with the necessary facilities for study, while the latter may reasonably ask that some provision should be made for their special educational needs, as for other forms of welfare.

The instruments for these purposes are the provision of books, room for study in leisure time, materials for hobbies, liaison with civilian educational work, correspondence courses, and courses at Services educational establishments. The extent of these facilities is affected by the location of a unit and the nature of its work.

This section of Services education is voluntary and is intended for those who are determined to pursue their studies either for advancement or (in the case of national service men) with an eye to their civilian careers. It may be remarked that the well-educated national service man sometimes assumes that the Service has a duty to provide him with whatever help he needs in his studies. In fact, the Services can only do this within the limits of their own more pressing commitments ; while he himself has a duty to give help, as opportunity offers, in the working of Services education, and will benefit from so doing.

It is now fully accepted that a serviceman should be aware of his rights and duties as a citizen. A Service which has no understanding of, or sympathy with, the community as a whole is politically dangerous and peculiarly ill-fitted to train national service men. For these reasons citizenship is included in the curriculum : there are also the weekly current affairs

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discussions conducted, as a rule, by regimental officers. It would be difficult and unwise to lay down precise rules for the conduct of these discussions. The officer, knowing his men, must judge how best he can get response from them. Whatever his methods, his aim should be that at the end of a current affairs period they are somewhat better informed, more tolerant, more capable of understanding and weighing an argument than they were at the beginning.

It would be ill-advised to claim that the Services have found all the answers to the problem of adult education, but in two hundred years of practical experience many useful methods of instruction have emerged and have been adapted for use in industry, commerce, and civilian adult educational establishments.

At this time in our history, when the whole of Western civilisation and its philosophy faces what may be its greatest crisis, it may well be that the attitude of mind and moral fibre fostered by Services education will prove a vital factor for good in the history of the world.

